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ABSTRACT

This publication provides a synthesis of contemporary issues and trends identified through a study of articles from selected professional journals. Part 1 presents a summary of historical issues providing a background for the curriculum of United States' schools prior to 1982. Part 2 discusses seven curriculum trends recognized in professional literature published between 1982 and 1987. These trend topics are educational leadership, teacher education, student-school relationships, evaluation and accountability, technological developments, curriculum development and change, and educational climate. For each topic, the book presents an overview, a set of synopses of representative journal articles and a list of suggested readings. The synopses of journal articles offer descriptions of situations and studies relevant to their topics. Appended are an epilogue and 10 references. (SI)

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CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION IN PERSPECTIVE

CONTEMPORARY

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PREFACE

1. *Contemporary Education in Perspective* is provided as a guide to all educators on the job and to students in education. It enables one to gain an overall perspective of professional literature. It is a quick reference guide for the desk of the person who wants an insight into current developments in education. The authors seek to inform the reader as to what is taking place on the educational scene.

2. The content of this text is composed of two parts. Part One presents a summary of historical issues providing the background for the curriculum of U.S. schools prior to 1982. Part Two presents discussions of the curriculum trends recognized in professional literature published between 1982 and 1987.

3. This publication provides a synthesis of contemporary issues and trends as identified by the authors through a study of articles from selected professional journals. It is designed to acquaint the reader with ideas, experimentations, and innovations to the extent that certain trends are recognizable. Changing emphases in content areas, skills areas, organizational procedures, and techniques are presented that seem to affect the educational programs of children.

4. The mode of presentation for Part Two is a set of trend topics supported by an overview, a set of synopses, and selected references for each trend. The trend topics provide a frame of reference for the publication. The synopses of journal articles offer descriptions of situations and studies relevant to their respective topics. A list of descriptors for each topic aids in determining the trend's scope.

5. The overview for each chapter enables the reader to attain a brief perspective of the trend area and the supporting data. It provides the major points of view and the emphases peculiar to programs and practices presented in the journal articles cited in the respective chapter.

6. The body of chapters in Part Two is composed of synopses of articles that support the existence of each respective trend as seen by the authors. Each synopsis gives only that information which appears relevant to the trend statement. No attempt is made to provide a complete digest of any article. It is anticipated that the brief synopses will assist the reader in selecting articles for reading from sources.

7. Articles for which synopses are provided in this publication were chosen by the authors from selections made by teachers, supervisors, and administrators engaged in graduate study in the Colleges of Education of the University of Georgia and the University of New Orleans and from the readings of the authors of this publication. The following were among the criteria for selecting each article: (1) The article was published within the last five years in a journal that is the official organ of a professional education organization or of a professional education institution, (2) the article reflects a trend affecting the curriculum, and (3) the article is considered helpful to educators in selecting an innovation for implementation in a school.

Recognition and appreciation are extended to all who contributed to the production of this publication. We are especially grateful to Donna Bell and Stephen Gordon, University of Georgia, for valuable assistance in the processing and preparation of materials for this publication. Special recognition is expressed to Patricia Peacock for her exceptional work in producing the final draft of *Contemporary Education in Perspective.*

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Part One

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

EARLY CIVILIZATION THROUGH WORLD WAR I

The curriculum of a nation's schools reveals much about that nation and its values. By studying the curriculum programs of a nation, an observer can detect priorities and what that nation holds to be most important at different times. By studying the background and history of U.S. education and those civilizations which influenced it, we can better understand the forces underlying the educational emphases and the implications for curriculum content. From ancient Sparta and Athens of 2,500 years ago to our present time, we are able to analyze patterns. For example, the curriculum of ancient Sparta made it the classic example of a totalitarian society where everyone functioned as a part of the state, whereas ancient Athens developed a curriculum that is an excellent example of a comprehensive, well-balanced society. Each curriculum has had some impact upon U.S. education.

Another factor that influenced the U.S. curriculum was the Roman school, which emphasized the memorization and recitation of Latin and Greek. This was designed to produce outstanding orators who would provide leadership as Roman senators, military commanders, and governors of their far-flung empire. In later years, this emphasis on the classical subjects would be used again in the Latin grammar schools of the New England colonies.

The Middle Ages, from approximately A.D. 500 to A.D. 1500, made contributions to education through the monastic system of preserving important documents; through the guild system; through the emergence of German, French, Italian, and English universities; and through Charlemagne's court school, which served as a model school during this period. The guild system is generally recognized as the forerunner of U.S. vocational education and of the apprenticeship system, while the early U.S. colleges emulated the European universities. The monastic system preserved many writings and works that were used when the printing press made mass production of materials possible. All these events proved to be valuable to later developers of the curriculum.

When Western Europe emerged from the Middle Ages, the Renaissance and the Reformation had a great influence on the lives of the people. Education was affected because these two movements emphasized the importance of the individual. Later, the sense realists, which included Comenius, Locke, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, and Spencer, stressed the importance of utilizing all five senses in learning. A good example of this was the object lesson developed by Pestalozzi, which stressed the concrete and minimized the abstract.

On looking at U.S. educational history, most historians agree that much of it is the product of Western Europe. Many changes occurred that have influenced education in the U.S. Probably the best technique for summarizing our educational history is to break this history down into time periods. Thus, the setting for education in the U.S. was greatly influenced by the leaders of the Age of Reason in Europe. Voltaire, Rousseau, Luther, Calvin, Locke, Hume, and other philosophers directly or indirectly affected the educational scene in the U.S. This rich heritage, which dated back to Athens and Sparta, provided the foundation for the development of the curriculum in the colonies and in the young nation.

1600 to 1800

During these two centuries, the U.S. was essentially divided into three distinct geographic regions: the New England colonies, including Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire; the Middle colonies, including New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland; and the Southern colonies, including Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Each region differed in many ways. The New England colonies assumed a leadership role in the colonial period. A strong religious emphasis was prevalent, as exemplified by the Massachusetts law of 1642 which stated that parents were responsible for their children's being able to read and understand both the Scriptures and the capital laws of the colonies. Since that law was difficult to enforce, it was followed by the Massachusetts law of 1647 that set the precedents for compulsory education and for local control of education. This legalized taxation for education. The new law provided for a teacher when a community reached 50 families and for a school building when the community reached 100 families and also set penalties for failure to comply. The hornbook used throughout New England was filled with religious comments, and the Massachusetts law of 1647 was referred to as the "Old Deluder Satan" Act. Other materials used were the Psalter, the Bible, and the *New England Primer*. In addition, the first college founded in the colonies, Harvard, was established in 1636, and the graduates became teachers in the colonies. Another important institution was the Latin grammar school, founded in 1635 to prepare boys for college. The curriculum was classical in nature, with the students being required to speak, understand, and translate Greek and Latin.

The Middle colonies made two major contributions: the academies and the parochial schools. The academy was the innovation of Benjamin Franklin, who founded the first one at Philadelphia in 1751, although it was 40 years later that academies became a significant factor. The academy was designed to provide a more varied and balanced curriculum than the Latin grammar school, which was the first secondary school. The academy was the second type of secondary school in the U.S. Many of its practices have been incorporated into the modern secondary school. Both boys and girls could attend, and practical subjects such as surveying, navigation, bookkeeping, and botany were offered. Parochial schools arose because of the different religious groups that settled in this area. Each group desired to maintain religious integrity. In order to ensure this, each group established schools that preserved their religious heritage.

The Southern colonies were characterized by three different kinds of education. These were tutorial education, pauper schools, and the apprenticeship system. Tutorial education was practiced by large plantation owners who secured tutors from England and New England to instruct their sons and daughters; the products of this type of education included presidents, senators, cabinet members, and Supreme Court justices. The pauper schools were set up by religious groups from the North that sent ministers southward to teach paupers, usually in a church building. Only the barest essentials of education were offered. The apprenticeship system involved indentured servants who came to the South. The master was required by law to teach his or her apprentice how to read, write, and use numbers. The results left much to be desired.

The three geographic regions were similar in that all established higher-education institutions. Nine colleges were founded during the colonial period: Harvard (1636), William and Mary (1693), Yale (1701), Princeton (1746), King's (1754), Philadelphia (1755), Brown (1764), Queen's (1766), and Dartmouth (1769).[1]

These colleges were founded by diverse religious groups, including Congregationalists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Baptists, and others. The early colleges were strongly influenced by religious motives, and these colleges provided ministers for the churches and teachers for the schools.

The last of this 200-year period was marked by the American Revolution, beginning in 1776. This was a period of unrest and a time for experimenting with a new form of government. Education was not mentioned in the Constitution. Education was considered to be a function of the state and local governments. Based upon history and upon their experiences, the Founding Fathers did not see education in terms of a national curriculum. As the nineteenth century approached, the assumption was that the state would be the agency for education, with the option of delegating this power to local towns and districts.

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[1] James W. Hillesheim and George D. Merrill. *Theory and Practice in the History of American Education*. Goodyear. Pacific Palisades, California, 1971, pp. 264-265.

1800–1917

Early in this period, colonialism was replaced by a strong surge of nationalism. Textbooks illustrated this change to nationalism. Throughout the two preceding centuries, the people of the colonies had placed great emphasis on the *New England Primer*, the hornbook, and the catechism, which propagated their strong religious teachings. The study of religion, along with Latin and Greek, had held top priority for many years. The teaching of values in textbooks continued, and the *New England Primer* shifted to patriotism, as the Revolution approached. The *Primer* began to fade after the Revolution. It was replaced by Noah Webster's "blue-backed speller," the famous *Elementary Spelling Book*, probably the most widely used schoolbook of the 1800's. This book was important because it provided for "Americanization" of the culture. It also emphasized patriotic and moralistic values for young students. It made literacy important to the developing nation.

Nationalism was provided a top priority by both school and community. As new states were admitted to the Union, they became the agencies of education. By 1800 and thereafter, these new states began to establish departments of education for certification of teachers and schools. They also established state universities after the Dartmouth Court decision in 1819 ruled against states taking over private institutions for state use. During this period of the 1800's, the school as the center of community life and McGuffey's readers (along with Webster's speller) were important guides for young U.S. citizens. McGuffey's graded readers, published in the 1830's and 1840's, placed emphasis on achievement and success through industry, sobriety, thrift, punctuality, and other essential virtues. These readers, along with Webster's speller, set before young students the ideas of achievement that aided greatly in modernizing and industrializing a young country. Two important institutions were established: the office of the school superintendent in 1812 and the normal school in 1839. Many educators consider Horace Mann, the chief school officer in Massachusetts in the middle of the nineteenth century, to be the most important educator of this period. He traveled extensively in Europe and studied the practices of Pestalozzi, Herbart, and other European educators. Horace Mann was in the process of incorporating many of these innovations into the curriculum of his native state and of other interested states. However, the Civil War interrupted the Common School movement, and education in many sections of the country was set back a generation or two.

Two federal acts, the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and the Morrill Act of 1862, were the first two provisions of federal aid to education. The Northwest Ordinance set aside a 1/16 section of each township for schools and for the support of education. The Morrill Act provided for land grant colleges and universities, making it possible for students not admitted to private institutions to gain higher education. One very important court case, the Kalamazoo case, settled by the Michigan State Supreme Court in 1874, legalized the establishment and support of schools based on public taxes. This cleared the way for a tremendous growth of high schools across the country.

Another innovation during this period was the monitorial schools plan, developed by Lancaster, in which the brightest student would teach the other students in his or her row. Eventually, these rows became rooms, establishing the Quincy grammar school of Boston in 1847. This became the first graded school organization in the U.S. The term "high school" was also first used in Boston in 1821 at the English high school. This followed the earlier Latin grammar school and Franklin's academy as secondary schools for the nation. Thus, both elementary and secondary schools were becoming firmly entrenched through trial and experiment during this period. Educators and lay people were groping for the best system to provide education for all youth in the nation.

As the nineteenth century drew to a close, two important developments were emerging, in the rise of scientific measurement and in the Industrial Revolution. Scientific measurement had profound effects on education, through both new testing means and grouping of students through the work of Thorndike, Hall, and others. The Industrial Revolution influenced the curriculum greatly by its emphasis on vocational education, English-U.S. history, math, and the various sciences. Great changes were occurring, and education was at a critical stage. As automation increased, educators began to develop plans for individual differences, as exemplified by the Winnetka Plan and the Dalton Plan. After the Committee of Ten recommended a rigid lockstep curriculum based on the premise that all secondary students take college preparatory courses, the end of this period saw the rise of progressive education as an alternative plan. John Dewey founded laboratory schools at the University of Chicago and at Teachers College, Columbia University, to attempt to provide a more progressive curriculum for young students. Because of world conditions, U.S. schools were beginning to take on a more international posture as World War I became a reality.

POST-WORLD WAR I THROUGH THE 1950'S

The economic thrust following World War I greatly affected the thinking of U.S. educators. The corporate organization and methods of business operation gave promise to coping with the problems encountered by education. Child labor and school attendance laws and the business practice of employing adults rather than adolescents brought increased school enrollment and many other problems. Testing for the armed forces had revealed the limited educational competence of the nation's youth. The development of behavioristic psychology and of intelligence testing played into the mood of making schools more businesslike. These factors brought forth analysis of the curriculum, especially the subjects of spelling, arithmetic, handwriting, geography, history, and literature in reference to their applications for teaching. Grouping according to ability as determined by standardized tests gave a new dimension to the educational process.

Analysis of the curriculum subjects led to analysis of life situations and their relation to the areas of vocational education and of civic and social living. Attention to enrichment areas and to life adjustment curriculum was heralded first as a means of coping with non-college-bound students and later was decried as detrimental to the real education of youth. The life-centered philosophies and works of persons such as Frances Parker, John Dewey, and William Heard Kilpatrick gave rise to the progressive education movement. This movement had considerable impact on the school curriculum during the 1930's and 1940's through innovations such as unit teaching and the project method. The one exemplary outcome of the movement was the University of Chicago Laboratory school, founded by John Dewey.

The objective movement in education after World War II was motivated by several factors. The business model, which called for more specification in education, was promoted by the work of national committees. The Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, produced by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918, set forth the principles emphasized in the progressive education movement. In keeping with this movement, Johann Friedrich Herbart showed that learning has sequence, through his steps in teaching. They are preparation, presentation, association, generalization, and application. These steps aided teachers in developing unit plans and encouraged correlation of subject matter, especially in the elementary school. Significant influences on secondary education came about through regional accreditation associations. Beginning with the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in 1855, these accrediting associations were effected in all regions by 1930.

The changing concept of education became evident as attention was given to the education of working farmers, mechanics, and industrial workers. The initial thrust acclaimed by the Morrill Act of 1862 was implemented through the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, and the George-Deen Vocational Act of 1936. The Morrill Act awarded about 10 million acres of public land to states for the establishment of land grant colleges to educate in the areas of scientific agriculture, engineering, homemaking, industry, and commerce. Recognizing that the teaching-methods knowledge base and the means for implementing this new field of education were not in readiness, the Smith-Lever, Smith-Hughes, and George-Deen acts were created to provide the experimental stations, laboratories, shops, and research workers necessary for developing college offerings to prepare both the curriculum and the teachers for the high schools. Accompanying federal finance bills were set up on a continuing basis for maintenance of the land grant institutions, experimental stations, laboratories, and high school programs.

The national crisis brought on by the depression of the early 1930's had its impact on education. Schools were hard pressed by increased enrollment, with limited funds to operate. New Deal legislation increased the social and physical responsibilities of the school. The Federal Lunch Room Program, the Works Projects Administration, the National Youth Administration, and the Civilian Conservation Corps are examples of acts that directly or indirectly affected schooling. These programs firmly established federal aid to education as a continuing influence on school operation and curriculum. They provided food, materials, and financial support for varied programs, ranging from outdoor education to professional studies.

Increased enrollment in secondary schools and colleges, federal support for vocational education, and the New Deal programs had tremendous impact on the "what" and "how" in schooling. The function of schools was being modified. The Education Policies Commission of the National Education Association attempted to define on a national scale the major purposes of public education. The result was the listing of the information, skills, habits, interests, and attitudes applicable to the areas of self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility in the document *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (1938). This document seemed to reassert the democratic idea in U.S. education. About the same time, the Progressive Education Association, along with other commissions, fostered the Commission on the Relation of School and College, which conducted the Eight-Year

Study. This study (1933-41) cast doubt upon the idea that any single pattern of subjects presents the best means of preparing high school students for success in college work. It illustrated that experimental approaches may be as effective as the traditional approaches utilized in secondary schools. The study showed that in academic college-level courses, students with an experimental curriculum program did as well as or better than students who studied in the traditional secondary programs and who excelled in extracurricular and social activities. Thus, the secondary curriculum should not be bound to any one prescribed program of studies.

The increasing interest in identifying characteristics of an effective secondary school program provided the impetus for the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards (1933-39), led by four regional accreditation associations. The major contribution of this study was the development and publication of *Evaluative Criteria* in 1940. The criteria were used as a tool in studying a school in terms of its own philosophy of education, the nature of its students, the community it serves, and the nature of the democracy of which it is a part. *Evaluative Criteria* is a self-evaluation instrument, updated every 10 years, that allows schools to develop and maintain individualistic programs.

Another national committee, Education for All American Youth, appointed by the National Education Association in 1942, proposed a secondary program based on the assumption that every youth should experience a broad, balanced education wherever he or she might grow up. This was the basis for the "Ten Imperative Needs of Youth" in the publication *Education for All American Youth* (1944), which furthered the effort to determine what the secondary school should teach.

Following World War II, there was a shift away from movements of progressive education and life adjustment theories. Nongradedness was brought into focus by Goodlad and Anderson at the same time a call to return to the essentials was heard. The GI Bill of 1944 and the Korean GI Bill assisted millions in financing educational programs. Both military and civilian organizations developed programs emphasizing U.S. ideals. President Eisenhower recommended a Code of Conduct for American Servicemen about the "turncoat" incident of 1953. *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*, developed by a National Education Association committee organized in 1952, made recommendations dealing with an increased school population; with peacetime orientation; and with the felt need for fostering loyalty and citizenship education, caused by the threat of communism.

During the 1950's, state legislation was first passed providing funds for exceptional children, such as those who are educable mentally retarded, trainable mentally retarded, orthopedically disabled, or speech-impaired. These state efforts to provide for those not previously being educated served as the forerunner for the later national special education movement.

The Supreme Court decision of 1954 concerning school desegregation has had a tremendous and continuing impact on education, first in the southern states and later across the nation. Further federal involvement recognizing the consciousness of equal opportunity for all came into major focus with the Supreme Court decisions regarding religion and segregation. Earlier Supreme Court cases affecting the teaching of religion in school and school segregation included the Everson case (1947), the McCollum case (1948), and the Zorach case (1952). These cases respectively dealt with the use of public funds to pay for the bus transportation of parochial school students to their schools, the practice of "released time" for instruction in religion utilizing public school classrooms, and the giving of religious instruction off school property at various religious centers during regular school hours. These Supreme Court rulings as to segregation of races and teaching of religion in the schools set the stage for extensive and unprecedented change in and modification of school administration and curriculum, teaching procedures, and school-community relationships.

FROM SPUTNIK THROUGH THE 1980'S

The successful mission of the Soviet satellite *Sputnik* had an immediate impact on U.S. education. The thought of the United

States falling behind the Soviet Union in technological advances disturbed many U.S. residents. One obvious response to such a concern was to promote greater emphasis on the education of U.S. youth to ensure a promising future. These efforts continued for nearly a quarter of a century in six recognizable areas: evaluation and accountability, federal intervention, teacher education, teaching procedures and technological developments, early childhood education, and the middle school movement.

Evaluation and Accountability

Evaluation has been a part of the educational system since its early beginnings. With the exception of the Regents Examination for college preparatory students in New York State and the various college entrance examinations, there was very little emphasis on evaluations of student performances, other than teacher-assigned grades. It was generally assumed that each generation was better educated, and therefore, comprehensive evaluations were an unnecessary waste of time and money, until the *Sputnik* incident of 1957.

With the recognition in the early 1960's that the Soviets were ahead of us in scientific developments, there was a sudden call for national testing of and competitive examinations for students, especially in the areas of mathematics and science. The U.S. public wanted to identify future scientists and to encourage them to pursue scientific studies.

The development of more sophisticated testing programs opened the way for more evaluation concerns. As federal funding for program development was made available to schools, requests could now be made for the systematic evaluation of the success of the programs. Therefore, this greater need for tests opened the way for a very formidable new industry: standardized testing. Some tests had been available in the 1950's, but they could not meet the ever-changing needs of the curriculum that was being developed through various national and statewide projects.

The testing industry has gone through numerous developmental cycles. Test developers created normative-referenced tests to meet the post-*Sputnik* concerns and have since responded to recent concerns with substantial efforts in minimum competency testing, criterion-referenced tests, and even a National Assessment of Educational Progress. Most of these later developments are directly related to efforts for accountability in education.

Accountability is the condition of being accountable, liable, or responsible for the product of a process. Evaluation is the method of measuring and observing the accomplishment. Business and industry had operated under accountability measures since their conception. It was relatively simple to examine sales records, product quality, and cost effectiveness. However, educational program effectiveness was more abstract and less quantifiable than most business or industrial products. In spite of that, education did adopt or adapt some business practices for accountability purposes—Program, Planning, Budgeting System (PPBS); Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT); Management by Objectives (MBO); and performance contracting. These practices became a part of many local accountability efforts.

The accountability movement gained momentum throughout the 1960's and 1970's. As more federal funds were spent on education and as social problems (vandalism, drugs, poverty, etc.) were connected to the failure of our school systems, politicians responded to the public's call for accountable school systems. Consequently, by 1978, nearly two-thirds of the states had enacted accountability legislation. Since much of this legislation involves the development and implementation of minimum competency testing programs, including graduation or exit examinations, these accountability programs will not be fully operationalized until the 1990's. Therefore, the true contribution of the accountability movement to education will not be known until the twenty-first century.

Federal Intervention

Following the firing of *Sputnik* in 1957, education in the U.S.

came under attack for alleged teaching ineffectiveness. Congress went into action to provide means for strengthening the capability of youth in the academic areas of the school—a bold act of federal intervention in education. This resulted in strengthening of the National Science Foundation, founded in 1950, and in passage of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958. Initially supporting science, mathematics, and foreign languages, this federal act eventually aided 10 academic areas of the school curriculum. Recognizing that education was related to the economic needs of some students, the Office of Economic Opportunity was established in 1965 to provide programs for students who are disadvantaged. Moving to more comprehensive federal support, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 provided federal aid to all areas of the curriculum at all levels. However, each program supported had to be focused on the students who are disadvantaged. Through many titles, millions of federal dollars have aided in the education of students classified as economically deprived. The most significant financial support of this type was through Title I, recognized most frequently for its funding of materials and resource personnel in the areas of mathematics and reading. These and other federal acts provided for projects such as the Job Corps, the Teacher Corps, Head Start, Follow Through, VISTA, and Upward Bound.

Beginning in the 1960's, federal attention and support focused on those students who were designated to be culturally and economically disadvantaged. These students included the Appalachian mountain children, the Spanish-speaking youngsters, the blacks, and the American Indians, whose limited experiences and inadequate environment have placed them in economically, socially, culturally, and academically deprived conditions. Legislation passed by Congress provided the means (often referred to as compensatory education) for the education of those students designated to be minority youth.

Modification of the school curriculum to accommodate the needs of minority youth placed a burden on the public schools, which motivated federal programs such as Head Start and Follow Through. Differentiation in the teaching of the minority students created labels and stigma attachments that prompted the Civil Rights Act of 1964, giving impetus to the concept of "cultural diversity" by declaring that minorities needed school programs based on their culturally distinctive needs. As a result, the Title VII bilingual education programs offered English as a second language, with continued development of the mother tongue.

A whole new framework of education, called special education, sprang up at the building level with the regular instructional programs of the common schools. Grouping of children for special needs soon came under fire by pressure groups. This resulted in "mainstreaming," or the return of a significant number of special students to the regular classroom with the promise of special resources and assistance to the regular teacher.

The legislation implementing mainstreaming programs was Public Law 94-142, passed by Congress in November of 1975. This law set 1980 as the year for making free, appropriate, public education available to all students who are disabled, unless the severity of the disability is such that education in the regular classroom with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily. The diagnosis, prescription, and remediation of exceptional children is consistent with guidelines developed according to Individualized Educational Plans (IEP's) to provide for a least-restrictive environment for each child.

After much emphasis on providing for the needs of students who are physically, mentally, economically, and culturally disabled, the gifted child came to be considered as the country's most neglected valuable natural resource. This condition prompted federal response to the educational needs of the gifted. At the direction of Congress, the Office of the Gifted and Talented in the Office of Education was established in 1971. This ushered in the National Leadership Training Institute and the National Clearing House for the Gifted and Talented.

Another major form of federal intervention included the funding of significant curriculum improvement projects. Many of these projects were an outgrowth of the surge toward preparation of youth for closing the scientific gap felt between the U.S. and the Soviet Union. The Physical Science Study Committee

(PSSC), initiated and developed at MIT in 1956, set the example for later curriculum improvement projects by emphasizing learning by inquiry and by using the laboratory for student experiments and exploration. Science process became as important as science content. PSSC was quickly followed by the Chemical Education Materials Study (CHEM STUDY), the Chemical Bond Approach (CBA), and the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS). These early science curriculum improvement projects had four basic aims: (1) to prepare teachers, (2) to update science content and skills, (3) to place emphasis on basic science principles, and (4) to place emphasis on inquiry/investigation.

The science projects were followed by Fenton's inquiry method in the social studies, the School Mathematics Study Group (SMSG), the High School Geography Project (HSGP), Man: A Course of Study (MACOS), and other projects representing all areas of the curriculum. An early finding of the projects was that classroom teachers must provide input for the development of textbooks, laboratory books, and other curriculum materials. BSCS and the Earth Science Curriculum Project (ESCP) provided leadership in this area.

Funding for the curriculum improvement projects peaked in 1963 and began to fade in the 1970's. Many of the programs were incorporated into the traditional school curriculum, or modifications were made by individual teachers. Recent studies noted that there were gains in both achievement and attitude in those districts that were dedicated to working with the projects. Many students showed increased competency in process, analytic, and inquiry skills.

Thus, we see a stringent effort of the federal government to improve the education of U.S. youth by promoting and supporting specific programs and projects in all areas of the curriculum for all segments of the people. These efforts, coupled with increasing legal pressures to improve education for all students, further led to substantial titles within ESEA in the late 1970's. The most recent of these, Title IX, provided for the elimination of discrimination according to sex, with respect to equality of educational opportunity.

Teacher Education

The past 25 years has witnessed many innovations, revisions, and modifications in the professional development of teachers. From Conant's *Education of American Teachers* in 1959 to the present emphasis on microcomputers, much has occurred to change teacher education. Some of the more notable programs provided are (1) microteaching/videotaping, (2) earlier and more field experiences, (3) student-teaching centers, (4) systematic observation techniques, (5) stimulation, and (6) competency-based teacher education models. As a direct result of *Sputnik*, instructional technology was used to improve teacher education. As an example, microteaching employed the videotaping of short lessons, which enabled the trainee to receive immediate feedback. Another example was the use of systems analysis approaches by nine institutions in the late 1960's. These nine institutions, including the universities of Florida State, Georgia, Massachusetts, Michigan State, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Toledo, and Teachers' College of Columbia, as well as the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, based in Portland, Oregon, developed innovative programs for the preparation of elementary teachers, beginning in the late 1960's. These nine institutions placed strong emphases on humanization in teaching, on proficiency modules to check competencies and deficiencies, and on an earlier, greater variety of field experiences at all levels of the teacher education program. Further, these institutions provided a systems analysis approach in their respective programs. Also, other systematic observation devices, such as interaction analysis, were incorporated into teacher education programs.

The combination of more and earlier field experiences with an emphasis on competency/performance-based evaluations provided the impetus for student-teacher teaching centers. As these programs progressed, many states began to develop teacher performance assessment instruments to evaluate preservice and beginning teachers. Some of these programs faded, but others are still being used and modified as better evaluation techniques are found.

Staff development has been closely related to improved professionalism. Classroom teachers have been providing more input into what should be offered in staff development courses and workshops. Both preservice and inservice education have been influenced over the past 2½ decades by accountability, technology, and cultural problems. Further, many teacher education programs have suffered from a lack of sustained effort to strengthen their programs, due to financial problems. Shortage of teachers in certain fields points to the importance of higher salaries and a better quality of life for teachers. Some programs around the nation are using new models, such as military models, medical models, and industrial models, to strengthen their supervision programs for preservice and inservice personnel. Other programs are working closely with community leaders and with industry.

Two innovations that assisted teacher education programs during this period were two federally funded projects, the Teacher Corps and the Teacher Center Law, which allowed teachers to submit proposals for the formation of teacher centers. The earlier effort, the Teacher Corps, was established to prepare inexperienced college graduates for a career in teaching children who are disadvantaged. The Teacher Corps provided a two-year apprenticeship, which led toward a Master of Arts in Teaching degree with on-the-job training in the school, community, and home. In later years, the Teacher Center Law has allowed teachers to develop programs based on teacher-needs assessment studies. Many educators would like to see each congressional district have at least one teacher center to serve teachers of that area. The programs of the teacher center can be designed to offer the most practical and helpful knowledge and skills to local teachers. Teacher exchange programs are also promoted by federal projects and by local school systems as a means of providing practical inservice education. Other problems such as teacher burnout, certification, and merit pay are being explored at these centers and in local school districts.

Certification has been influenced greatly by competency/performance-based programs and by the National Teacher Examination (NTE). Because of these certification pressures, many programs around the country have added reading courses, courses on exceptional children, and more basic content courses. These efforts reflect the emphasis on certification based on testing of competencies.

Teaching Procedures and Technological Developments

Along with the surge to provide federal aid for improvement of education were certain developments by professional educators. Two important studies during this period, conducted by James B. Conant and J. Lloyd Trump, presented innovative ideas. The Conant Report was an intensive study of U.S. secondary schools, concerned with what content to teach. Twenty-one recommendations were made to improve the curriculum and individual program of the secondary school student. The Trump Plan offered a new approach in teaching procedure, called team teaching. The plan called for three types of instruction: large group, small group, and individual teaching. Team teaching is a systematic arrangement wherein several teachers, with a leader and assistants, utilizing the optimum in technology, cooperatively instruct several combined classroom groups of students.

Another impact on education at this time was Jerome Bruner's *Process of Education* (1960), which outlined for education the structure of knowledge and how it could be applied at educational levels. Taxonomies of educational objectives by Benjamin S. Bloom, David R. Krathwohl, and associates provided a classification system of educational skills in the cognitive and affective domains. Subsequently, several educators developed taxonomies for objectives in the psychomotor domain. These systems guide the teaching of different levels of knowledge, movement, and thought-action processes. Bloom also established the foundation for mastery learning as a procedure whereby every student might master the fundamental educational skills at his or her own pace.

Individualized instruction came into focus through the nongraded and continuous progress structures promoted by John Goodlad and Robert Anderson. The concepts that characterized nongradedness and continuous progress education were also applicable to open education, for which the open space schools were designed. Here students participated in the selection of their objectives and activities and were self-directed in function and evaluation. Teaching machines utilizing programmed instruction were proclaimed as a means of making the paper textbook obsolete. Programmed books, another product of programmed instruction, soon gave way to learning activity packages (LAP's), some of which were called "teacher-proof." LAP's made possible self-paced instruction based on pretesting, diagnosis, and assignment according to individual proficiency. Graded classroom learning centers designed to foster the development of knowledge and skills furthered the concept of individualized instruction. These innovations provided the basis and paved the way for computer-assisted education. Individualized projects such as Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI), Program for Learning According to Need (PLAN), and Individually Guided Education (IGE), all of which included some form of LAP, were forerunners for contemporary uses of computers in education. More sophisticated computer programs and individual use of microcomputers are now increasing rapidly in education.

An increasing awareness by educators that each child learns differently and at different rates has caused them to realize that each child is unique and needs a curriculum geared to his or her personal needs. Analysis of learning styles by Rita Dunn and the development of a classification system for curriculum materials (Annehurst Curriculum) by Jack Frymier are two major efforts to address such concerns. Additionally, many models of teaching have been developed to provide opportunities for individual learning, such as non-directive teaching, inquiry training, concept attainment, social inquiry, laboratory method, and operant conditioning. Models, techniques, and programs were the subjects of regional federal research and development

(R & D) centers for research, experimentation, testing, and dissemination. These centers produced programs and materials pertinent to modification of educational curriculum and procedure. Both instruction and curriculum have received significant attention from the federal government.

The National Institute of Education (NIE) has been the major arm of the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) for research in the areas of teaching and curriculum. The most recent effort of the USOE in these areas is that of reviewing and validating promising educational programs and projects. These validated programs are disseminated and installed through the National Diffusion Network (NDN), a systematic delivery system administered by the U.S. Education Department's Office of Educational Research and Improvement. A summary of these programs is distributed annually in a publication entitled *Educational Programs at Work*.

Changing conditions and structures in education have brought about modification of teaching procedures and curriculum. Chief among these is the use of technological aids such as cable and closed-circuit television, hand-held calculators, video recorders, retrieval systems, and microcomputers. The youth of the 1980's are receptive to these changes, having experienced them through innovative games and puzzles as recreational and social activities.

Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education became a highly recognized aspect of education during the decades from 1960 to 1980. The realizations that IQ is not fixed at birth but is affected by the environment and that possibly 50 percent of mature intelligence is attained by age four sparked many types of programs and centers for the young child. Increased attention was given to mental development along with physical and social development. Early intellectual stimulation was promoted in private, public, and church nurseries and kindergartens. Among them were university laboratory preschools, child development centers, company-owned and -managed schools, cooperative schools, Montessori schools, franchised schools, and federally funded preschool day care centers.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 provided for the Head Start Child Development Program to prepare the preschool children of low-income families with a wide variety of educational experiences and programs. Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act augmented this program. Follow Through, which became operational in the fall of 1967, linked Head Start with elementary programs. Many parent-child centers were opened, providing a better tie with the home and school. Research on education of the young child was stimulated and supported by programs such as the regional federal research and development centers.

Curriculum for the young child has undergone careful scrutiny and critical appraisal. Experimentation has taken place in all the major areas of the curriculum. Preschool programs have stressed cognitive learning, especially those using the Montessori method, the Beriter-Englemann method, or the talking typewriter, devised by O. K. Moore. There has been a shift from primary emphasis on preparation of the child for later entrance into the world to that of helping the child to grow up in a world of which he or she is already a part.

A renewed interest in the methods of Maria Montessori and in the studies of Jean Piaget has focused on early intellectual stimulation. This concept has been further influenced by reports and studies of British infant and primary schools and by Jerome Bruner's theory that all subject matter has a basic similarity in structure that can be adopted at all levels in the intellectual development of the child. The curriculum for the very young has been directly affected by the inclusion of added personnel, by the attention to nutrition, and by the awareness that a child must progress at his or her own pace. Accordingly, more attempts have been made to help young children develop the power to think critically, to solve problems, and to learn how to learn.

Specific attention is being given by educators to children of ages four through eight years, focusing upon provision of an environment in which learning is individualized to meet children's abilities, interests, and needs. This movement involves providing flexible structured learning experiences for young children as soon as feasible. It includes parent education, readiness for formal schooling, social development, physical development, and perceptual motor and language skills, including reading. Major emphasis is being given to providing kindergarten for all children that gives attention to the total child, with optimal physical, social, and emotional growth along with the cognitive aspects. Some effort has been made toward the total education approach for all four- to eight-year-olds.

Given the special needs of early childhood education, significant attention has been given to preparation and certification programs for teachers of young children. Such programs involve attention to the methods and materials, the curriculum, and the social and academic needs of young children. Because of the natural home-school relationship in the education of young children, substantial attention is directed toward effectively utilizing resources of the home, school, and community in the education process.

The Middle School Movement

The middle school movement appeared in professional literature around 1965. From 1965 onward, an intensive effort has been made by proponents of the middle school, including Alexander, Compton, Williams, Eichorn, and others, to return ninth-grade Carnegie units to high school and to develop a more personalized curriculum. The peak period for the development of the middle school concept lasted a decade, through the mid-1970's. The middle school usually begins with grades five or six and does not extend past grade eight. Supporters of the middle school see the adolescent years of 10 to 14 as a period of transition in which many physiological and psychological changes occur. In order to meet the needs of those students ages 10 to 14, the middle school curriculum offers a broad program consisting of general education, learning skills, and exploratory experiences. Greater emphasis is placed on individualized instruction to assist students in personal growth and self-expression. The early middle school movement attempted to implement independent study, team teaching, nongradedness, and open classrooms.

Middle school proponents claim that the junior high school organizational plan did not meet the needs of the 10- to 14-year-old age group. Thus, the middle school was organized to strengthen the cognitive and affective domains while improving the emotional and social phases of the school. Exploration was identified as a key factor in allowing learning to take place as the student exercises his or her own initiative in working through the problems that are relevant and unique to this age group.

The development of the middle school has been influenced to some extent by overcrowding of both elementary and secondary schools, by integration, and by changes due to busing of students. However, curriculum improvement has been the leading cause for a switch to the middle school. Seminars and individually directed learning experiences have taken the place of the traditional lecture-recitation methods in some middle schools. Inflexible student schedules have given way to flexibility. Flexibility is an important key to the success of a middle school program, since it accommodates a wide range of individual differences. Interdisciplinary and/or subject area teams can effectively work in allocating blocks of time to certain projects and activities.

The middle school concept has brought about a critical reexamination of the objectives of education concerning the vital 10- to 14-year-old age group. Most educators agree that this age group is now more knowledgeable and lives in a social environment that is more complex than ever before. Mass media influences, along with the drug culture, present more special problems to this age group. The middle school concept has developed and increased rapidly in the past two decades, but there is still diversity over how to best meet the needs of the middle school student. Some educators see the middle school program as being too fluid and lacking in structure, while others view this as a strength. It is generally agreed that a solid school curriculum is needed to fit the particular needs of this age group, which is moving from childhood to adolescence. The search continues for developing and implementing the most productive curriculum program for this enthusiastic but trying age group.

Part Two

TRENDS AFFECTING CURRICULUM

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Educators are concerned that the sense of the past and hope for the future of society, reflected through education, are in disarray. There is uncertainty about educational leadership and its direction for the future. More people are in on the act of decision making than ever before. Today's pressures, more than ever, necessitate well-prepared and dedicated leaders. Efforts to involve at all levels the various school and community persons in the never-ending decision-making and public relations processes draw heavily upon the physical, emotional, and financial capabilities of all educational leaders.

One of the strongest concerns is that special interest groups have pushed for their divergent goals, and on many issues have gained them, at the expense of the larger and more relevant educational goals for youth. Social revolutions and economic scarcities too often consume leaders, leaving little time and energy for academic development. Leaders have their power to act subtly diluted, while increased paperwork makes it very difficult to espouse any value system on which to base education. Concern for what should be centralized or decentralized is endless. This concern also includes the disparity of wealth, people who are disabled, people who are poor, language differences, constitutional rights, race, gender, what and how to teach, and the ever-present lack of educational research. Another significant condition under pressure is the obvious imbalance of females and minority-race persons in leadership roles. Strenuous efforts through affirmative-action legislation and through special training programs have had little effect on this problem.

These trying circumstances emphasize the need for leaders who have purposes, beliefs, and commitments about education that can be intelligibly communicated to others. Such requires that leadership give balanced attention to both the practical and the theoretical. Critics fail to support the efforts of educators to promote and provide for the total education of youth that embraces attention to values and long-term quality schooling. At the same time, leaders are urged to give particular attention to the nurturing and managing of classroom instruction. This is difficult, since administrators too often are not prepared for this task. Superintendents particularly have difficulty in providing instructional leadership, as their tenuous positions often mitigate against their taking strong stands about curriculum. Developing and maintaining a psychological environment for communication where varied programs and issues can be discussed without fear, threat, or intimidation is a continuing challenge to leadership.

There is a growing push for more effective training of school administrators. The demands for leadership skills such as leadership behavior, management, instruction, planning, organizing, directing, public relations, and collective bargaining continue to increase. Colleges and universities are beginning to give more attention to the preparation of administrators and supervisors through expanded programs and advanced degrees. Inservice education for leaders is taking on increased significance with extensive off-campus programs designed to meet the needs of specific clientele. Some business concerns and some state departments of education are beginning to support studies to determine the needs of leaders and the types of programs desirable for developing effective leadership. Principals are also beginning to design and direct their own learning centers. Out of these programs has come the realization that administrators need a disciplined way of looking at the job in order to gain proper perspective on leadership. It is also being recognized that administrators need to acquire skills in curriculum development, clinical supervision, and knowledge of human development.

The abilities to establish priorities and to give concentrated attention to selected aspects of school programs for study and development are seen as stringent needs of school leadership. Those aspects having to do with determination of goals, with selection of priorities, and with development and implementation of curriculum fall within the realm of supervisory personnel. It is recognized that the process is of importance, whether this leadership comes from the principal or from the principal working through supervisory staff. Whichever may be the case, it is noted that faculty and community involvement affect the success of the school program.

Supervision has been found to give support and guidance in all aspects of curriculum and instruction in the school and in the community. Persons in such roles observe, coordinate, provide resources, and assist with planning, implementation, evaluation, and projection. There is a tremendous need for supervision that is simple, practical, inexpensive, and easily administered. This is particularly crucial as teachers and supervisors work together observing students, diagnosing problems, and designing follow-up instruction for individual students.

A well-recognized element of supervision is performance monitoring. This enables leaders to be knowledgeable as to instructional plans, procedures, and student achievement, all of which are necessary for providing appropriate faculty, support services, organizational structures, and facilities. Effective supervision depends upon carefully developed plans geared to specific tasks for identified purposes. This recognizes that planning for certain results increases the probability of success when supervisory personnel are a part of an administration that communicates with, and has a good working relationship with, the instructional staff.

Collective bargaining, a recognized factor with which leadership must cope, is both an asset and a liability to the educational process. The level, timing, and intensity of the function make the difference. Collective bargaining has improved communication on educational matters in some situations. In other situations, it has also impaired cooperative planning and evaluation of instruction between supervisory and instructional personnel.

Team management is providing an effective way for leadership to function in the administration of educational processes through discovering, exploring, and problem solving. It is also a means of disseminating information, exchanging ideas, engaging in cooperative planning, and coordinating functions and services. Team management suggests that there exists some form of differentiated staffing, with specialists responsible for their respective areas of service. A high level of performance and accountability is usually expected in return for freedom of operation within one's area of service. Such a plan gives support and guidance to the superintendent. However, superintendents are usually influenced more by their peers, politicians, and local citizens. It is interesting to note that those persons who have great influence on the administrator often are not formal authorities in the school system.

Team management usually accommodates and/or functions through one or more councils. The chief coordinating body is usually an executive council composed of the superintendent and of the heads of whatever size divisions of administration and supervision the politics of the system command. At a lower level, the principal is the chief coordinator of the team. Team management is a promising concept at the system or school level but is fraught with the politics of power play and with the variable strength of members of the team. The amount of responsibility delegated to team members depends to a large extent on the ability of the administrator, superintendent or principal, to work through others and on his or her willingness to command action when needed.

Among the many models of leadership being tried is the Japanese style of participatory management, or Theory Z. Characteristics or components of Theory Z include commitment to an overall philosophy, emphasis on long-term association, trust, and participative decision making. Major attention is given to participation of all persons in decision making relevant to quality of school life. Through this system, teachers, administrators, parents, and students assume new roles of participation in their schools. Administrators become more involved as instructional leaders in the improvement of climate for learning, and they assist participants in better understanding educational purposes, what is taking place, and what is involved in carrying out decisions.

Regardless of the plan of educational leadership, decisions about school operation, curriculum, and instruction are made at several levels of involvement within the state and local governance. Educators are informed as to what is expected at each level, since many external expectations are assigned to each school and community for attention. Whatever the local school plan, there is usually some designation of department heads or chairpersons for leadership in certain areas of the curriculum. Faculty participation in selection of such representatives appears to make a difference in their effectiveness. Leadership responsibility in the use of resources necessary for translating concerns into specific and measurable goals depends on understanding the nature of the tasks at hand and on having committees and involved faculty. Instructional leaders provide appropriate settings for identifying the context and processes necessary for examining the effectiveness of the instruction and the areas of the school needing improvement.

The principal as the status leader of the school has the responsibility for generating, controlling, or modifying action. He or she provides for staff participation in planning, development, implementation, evaluation of student learning, and evaluation of staff and faculty. There is much concern by teachers that administrators should be held more accountable. A systems approach to evaluation of administrators, using input from subordinates, seems to foster a better attitude of teachers toward performance evaluation. When emphasis is placed on evaluation as a means of determining needs and of providing resources and conditions favorable toward meeting needs, all parties are enabled to function in an open, purposeful, and professional manner. Where responsibility is shared, teachers seem more willing to be evaluated and more willing to participate in decision making and in school responsibilities. Leadership behavior has been shown to be positively associated with school outcomes. Accordingly, it appears that principals who emphasize instruction show qualities of assertiveness, attentiveness to learning environment, and mastery of objectives fostering positive effects on faculty and students.

Thus, we find that educational leadership faces challenges that differ in particular situations. Leadership takes on different forms in terms of pressures, social structures, political revolutions, legal developments, inherent organizational patterns, and the abilities of status leaders to share responsibility. Contemporary pressures have forced leadership to be better prepared for and in tune with current situations. Educational objectives that maximize curriculum and instructional opportunities continue to concern educational leaders. Administrators are giving more attention to effectiveness of the curriculum and are recognizing the value of persons, most often identified as supervisors, whose chief responsibilities are the development, administration, and improvement of curriculum. Efforts are being made to improve administration of education through plans such as team management and Theory Z. The roles and functions of leadership are being recognized at varying levels—national, state, and local—and responsibilities and tasks are being adjusted in keeping with needs. Accountability emphases call for more and varied attention to the evaluation of educational leaders.

Representative Synopses

EXPERIENCES OF A HIGH SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR IN A BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAM

Duncan, Franklin M. *Kappa Delta Pi Record,* Volume 23, Spring 1987, pp. 91-93.

Duncan describes the administrator's role in implementing the Florida Beginning Teacher Program, which was initiated in 1982. The Florida program was based on participation by a four-person team consisting of the beginning teacher, a peer teacher, a building-level administrator, and another professional educator from the school district or from the nearby university. Prior to the beginning of the school year, building-level administrators met with the district administrator in charge of the program. The administrators received materials consisting of the county plan, a handbook for the beginning teacher, the professional development plan, a competency demonstration checklist, the evaluation form, and papers referred to as Educational Domains.

The administrator coordinated these team efforts by holding early conferences with the beginning teacher and the peer teacher of the team. At this first conference, the Professional Development Plan (PDP) was discussed. The PDP contained 24 generic educational competencies in which each beginning teacher had to demonstrate competence in order to complete the program. It was also explained that a portfolio had to be established to assure accountability in the competencies. When a competency had been met to the satisfaction of the team, it was dated and signed by the building-level adminstrator. Although all members of the team might be supportive, the building-level administrator would be the individual to make the final determination as to the beginning teacher's successfully completing the program.

The administrator conducted preconferences with beginning teachers before observations began. Also during the year, the administrator held at least one postconference with the beginning teacher without the other support personnel present. The administrator was also responsible for completing the evaluation form provided by the state. The evaluation form was used in conjunction with the Florida Performance Measurement System Domains, previously referred to as Educational Domains. The Educational Domains are composed of six categories: (1) planning for instruction, (2) management of student conduct, (3) instructional reorganization and development, (4) presentation of subject matter, (5) communication: verbal and nonverbal, and (6) evaluation of achievement.

Duncan concludes that the program had much merit for beginning teachers because administrators were able to work with them and to provide assistance throughout the entire year, whereas previously the first-year teachers did not have as much help or close supervision. Experienced teachers indicated that the program was of minimal benefit to them because of the extra time and effort involved. However, the author notes that the overall program strengthened the supervisory skills of those who participated.

ONE DISTRICT'S MODEL—TEAM MANAGEMENT: A CONCEPT FOR OUR TIME

Hawkins, Wilber. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 66, April 1982, pp. 85-88.

Hawkins illustrates the team management model by presenting a case study of team management in operation in the Hicksville (New York) Public Schools. He reports that in July 1978, serious discord existed between the Hicksville school board and the school district's council of local school administrators, which consisted of principals, assistant principals, supervisors, and department chairpersons. Council members lacked confidence in board members as professionals and considered the board miserly and unappreciative. Board members perceived the administrators as being unwilling to take responsibility as managers, as giving in to whims of the teachers' union, and as working at cross-purposes with the board. During this period of time, the contract between the board and the administrators was expired and unresolved. As a basis for procedure, the team management model was introduced at the same time as the traditional administrator's negotiated contract was replaced by group decision making.

The contractual agreement was based on the assumptions that (1) all administrators, not just the superintendent, should be concerned with management problems, (2) top management and middle management need to consult on an ongoing basis, (3) time and energy of educators should be given toward solving educational problems, and (4) administrative bargaining divides management on issues beyond the contract.

The management process began with the identification of priorities by the board of education and by the administrators. The superintendent became a liaison-mediator between the administrators and the board. Problems were identified and resolved at regular administrative council meetings, which were collegial in nature. Middle managers were updated on the status of teacher negotiations, and the middle managers' input was sought. The superintendent worked directly with the administrators on their own contracts, and meetings were held regularly, with progress reports made to the school board.

Under the team management agreement in the Hicksville system, the administrators have become involved in budget development, policy formulation, and other management decisions and are expected to share in being accountable for results. All administrative evaluations are carried out within the district's management structure.

The organizational strategies of team management are designed to turn the energies of the administrators toward solving district problems in a planned and open manner. The dynamics of the group, rather than the skills of individual members, are relied upon in developing goals and in solving problems.

Interpersonal and communication skills are extremely important because principals are liaisons between the school staff and the central office. Principals bring concerns of the staff members to the central office and explain district-level issues and decisions to the staff members. Priorities of the board of education and the superintendent are set during the summer. The management team then meets in a two-day workshop prior to the beginning of the school year and expands each priority to include operational objectives.

Hawkins finds that change in the Hicksville system is based on actual needs and that communication and commitment are facilitated through the involvement of the management team. At the same time, individuals are encouraged to grow professionally and to become more confident in their leadership roles.

PERSONALIZING INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION SYSTEMS

June, Don, Howard Wenger, and Barbara Guzzetti. *Educational Leadership*, Volume 44, May 1987, pp. 51-56.

The administrative team, Don June and Howard Wenger, at Loveland High School in Colorado, carried out a five-year instructional supervision system that was revised from a packaged system.

In the first section of this article, June and Wenger report on their instructional supervision system and give their findings. In the second section, Barbara Guzzetti, from the University of Colorado in Boulder, reports her findings from a follow-up study on the Loveland administrators' system.

Both June and Wenger indicated that the aim of supervision should be to help teachers make better decisions about instruction. This was contrary to the fact that most packaged systems for supervision emphasized practices that expected and reinforced routinized performances. In order to accommodate the many teaching styles in Loveland High School, the administrators formulated their own plan. In doing so, they implemented a plan with four steps: (1) Set a goal to enable teachers to teach themselves to teach within a five-year period. (2) Create a vision that change would be rewarded with success. (3) Provide support and feedback to the teachers. (4) Begin the actual supervision cycle process.

In five years of working under this plan, the administrators saw trust building between themselves and their staff. They also saw teachers become more autonomous in their teaching and become better able to make appropriate decisions in their teaching.

In her study of the Loveland High School supervision system, Guzzetti's findings supported the administrators' view. Her study was conducted through semi-structured interviews with teachers and students. The interviews consisted of a range of teachers who had been enthusiastic to teachers who were "not exactly fans" of the administrators; students were interviewed in the same manner. Since Loveland High had been a high-achieving school in test scores before the program, this variable of success was not used to draw conclusions.

In summary, this five-year study showed that administrators can directly and positively effect instructional improvements and supervision systems.

WHAT'S HAPPENING IN JEFFERSON COUNTY OPEN HIGH SCHOOL?

Langberg, Arnold. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 64, June 1983, pp. 736-737.

Arnold Langberg, principal of Jefferson County Open High School (JCOHS) in Evergreen, Colorado, discusses how the open education program at JCOHS, where students design their own curriculum, has proven successful during a time when many other innovative educational programs have failed.

At JCOHS, enrollment is on a first-come, first-served basis, with a spring waiting list that usually numbers over 100. Academic performance at this open high school is comparable to the performance of students at conventional high schools, and 75 percent of all graduates attend college. Students at JCOHS have no required courses, with the exception of a nine-week orientation period, and receive no grades. They evaluate their own learning experiences and request feedback concerning these evaluations from their teachers.

Early in his or her program, each student chooses an advisor from the school staff to share responsibility for creating and implementing an individualized program of study. Students at JCOHS share in governing the school, interviewing candidates for staff positions, determining how the school budget will be spent, and planning course schedules.

As a result of foregoing participation in interscholastic athletics and other extracurricular activities, the school has been allowed funds for two vans and a total travel mileage of 50,000 miles per year. A student-run food service, a recording studio, a dance company in residence, a video project, and summer employment maintaining a solar heated greenhouse are all benefits made possible through outside funding. Other students and members of the community have been invited to make use of the school's special resources; hence the school is considered a valuable community asset.

Langberg attributes much of the school's success to efforts made by parents and staff to avoid problems experienced by other open schools. He and eight out of the nine staff members, hired when the school opened in 1975, had previous experience in alternative schools. Four of the nine had experience teaching in Jefferson County, a factor which reduced chances of the staff being labeled as outsiders. JCOHS has avoided frequent principal turnover and assignment of principals not committed to open education—two problems that have plagued other alternative schools.

The Jefferson County school, however, did experience problems as a result of initial attempts to help each student to create his or her own curriculum. Some students were unable to maintain the self-discipline necessary to make such self-designed curriculums successful. The school's answer was to implement a version of the walkabout or discovery approach. With this approach, students must demonstrate 50 pre-walkabout skills and the ability to use such skills in self-developed projects called "Passages." Graduation requirements are met through a combination of classes, apprenticeships, independent study, work, and travel.

Langberg concludes that JCOHS has been a success because it has avoided the fiscal, staffing, internal, and leadership problems that have hampered other alternative schools.

THE JAPANESE MODEL OF MANAGEMENT: WILL IT WORK FOR HIGH SCHOOLS?

Phillips, Gary, and Bill McColly. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 66, Number 457, November 1982, pp. 82-86.

The authors describe a Japanese-style participatory management system, called synergistic management, at Lawrence North High School in suburban Indianapolis. This new form of management was developed as part of a school improvement program sponsored by Charles F. Kettering, IDEA, and Lilly Endowment. The improvement planning process involved students, parents, teachers, and community leaders in designing school improvement projects. These groups, along with school principal Bill McColly, developed a decision-making model described as synergistic management, which has as its object "win-win" decisions as opposed to "win-lose" decisions.

The synergistic model follows the theme of continuous improvement, which means that participants make decisions that improve their quality of life within the organization as well as improve school program effectiveness and efficiency. Synergistic management also attempts to identify and mobilize assistance from sources outside the school, such as parents and community leaders.

Phillips and McColly state that North High School's Japanese model of management saw teachers, administrators, parents, and students assuming new roles. Volunteer teachers met in groups of five each week to make decisions aimed at improving the quality of their lives on the job as well as the quality of educational programs. Recommendations were submitted to the principal, who interpreted district policy relevant to the decision to be made and also assisted as resource person. This new role caused the administrator to spend more time with the teachers and to become a true instructional leader. Parent meetings resulted in the opportunity for parents to (1) become informed about school events, (2) influence decisions, and (3) participate in the education of their children through activities at home. Students met in homeroom each day for 15 minutes and once every two weeks for 45 minutes. These meetings gave students an expanded role in self-direction and allowed students and teachers to mutually work toward school improvement.

The authors report two dramatic changes as a result of the Japanese style of management: (1) teacher-designed and teacher-presented staff development activities, attended on a voluntary basis, resulted in all-time highs in attendance and enthusiasm, and (2) a two-day exchange, in which parents took the role of students, was planned and implemented by a group of parents, students, and teachers. More than 90 percent of the ninth-grade students were represented by their parents.

Phillips and McColly report a number of positive conclusions concerning the effects of synergistic management on Lawrence North High School. The number of teachers volunteering for participation in the program has doubled since it began. Teachers are beginning to see payoffs for participatory management in terms of expanded options for learners and of increased learner enthusiasm. Teachers also expect a long-range payoff in terms of improved work climate, more school spirit, less vandalism, higher attendance, and improved academic achievement. Shared decision making has brought a new sense of ownership and involvement to parents, students, and professional staff.

I/D/E/A PROGRAM EMPHASIZES PRINCIPAL AS NUMBER ONE LEARNER

Sharp, Kenneth, Jr. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 67, January 1983, pp. 96-101.

Sharp, a principal in the Cincinnati School System, describes an I/D/E/A (Institute for Development of Educational Activities) program for the professional growth of principals, benefits of the program, and how principals can initiate one in their district. Sharp is one of more than 500 principals in 15 states participating in the I/D/E/A Principals' In-service Program.

This program was designed to encourage, sustain, and support principals' continuous improvement activities for themselves and for their schools. It differs from the typical inservice offerings (workshops, conferences, courses, seminars) for administrators by providing ongoing opportunities for principals to improve their professional competence in areas of their choosing. The training is organized around a collegial, rather than a hierarchical, support system. The content, the incentives for participation, and the patterns of interaction are relevant to the needs and interests of the participants.

The program helps principals establish themselves as leaders in school improvement by giving them the opportunity to interact with a group of their peers. During the two-year program, groups of 6 to 10 principals meet monthly with a trained local facilitator. The members of each group function as equals, providing support and peer review and serving collectively as a resource panel for individual members.

Through a series of structured activities, each principal becomes more aware of his or her leadership style, how it affects others, and the importance of adaptiveness and flexibility. Each individual moves toward a perspective of what makes an effective principal and toward an understandable and workable improvement plan. In the Principals' In-service Program, the principal as the "Number One Learner" designs, implements, and evaluates a project that involves staff members in addressing an identified need within the school.

According to Sharp, the principals viewed the inservice program positively. A brief analysis of the school improvement plans designed by the participating principals revealed that most plans addressed needs in staff development programs and in improvement in the educational climate of the school.

DEVELOPING AN OPERATIONAL PLAN: MARYLAND'S INITIATIVE FOR QUALITY LEADERSHIP

Shilling, Joseph L. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 70, January 1986, pp. 3-6.

Shilling describes a Maryland State Department of Education Comprehensive School improvement project aimed at ensuring quality leadership at the school building level. The Maryland approach consists of three interrelated and complementary efforts: (1) establishment of a Commission on School-Based Administration designed to examine all facets of quality leadership, (2) creation of a statewide assessment program to improve the processes for the selection and development of principals, and (3) support of a newly created Research and Development Laboratory on School-Based Administration at the University of Maryland.

A key component in the Maryland effort was the creation of the statewide Maryland Assessment Center Program (MACP). The MACP is a cooperative effort involving the state department of education, the local school systems, and the colleges and universities. Through the MACP, candidates will not simply be screened out but will be provided an opportunity to engage in a program designed to strengthen the weaknesses identified in the assessment process. The program is designed to operate on a regional basis, with approximately 250 schools per region. An interesting feature of the leadership assessment program is the role of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP).

NASSP participates in the program by (1) providing technical assistance to the state department of education in the selection of regional coordinators, assessors, and director, (2) evaluating and accrediting the MACP, and (3) providing training, materials, and technical assistance to implement and operate the program in order to assure compliance with NASSP policy.

Shilling concludes that the one most critical factor in excellent schools is an outstanding leader. The Maryland assessment program provides a service in assisting in the selection of principals. Further, the author notes that the program has the potential, if used properly, to nurture and develop leadership ability in the state.

DEVELOPING PRINCIPALS' PROBLEM-SOLVING CAPACITIES

Snyder, Karolyn J., and Mary Giella. *Educational Leadership*, Volume 45, September 1987, pp. 38-41.

Snyder and Giella report on a pilot group of principals in Pasco County, Florida, who are now beginning to train other principals in research-based problem solving. The Pasco County school district has designed a comprehensive Human Resources Management Development system to develop the capacity of current and future principals who can influence how schools address and solve their learning challenges. This system provides for selection, certification, development, and appraisals of principals. Pasco County selected the Managing Productive Schools (MPS) Training Program as its core two-year program for the 12 principals selected for the pilot project. The MPS Training Program consists of 30 days of training over a two-year period and is based on three premises: (1) there is a knowledge base to undergird improvement efforts, (2) effective leaders in all kinds of organizations facilitate collaborative efforts, and (3) developing "stretch" goals through collaborative efforts is fundamental to all development and assessment activities that follow.

The MPS Training Program is based on a four-cluster management model, including organizational planning, staff development, program development, and school assessment that encompasses management competencies. Research themes and training activities are used in the four-cluster model. Using research findings from various areas, the program emphasizes the dimensions of expectations, development opportunities, and coaching. Six core dimensions, influenced by the work of Joyce and Showers in 1982, drive the development model. These dimensions are (1) the readiness stage, (2) the concepts stage, (3) the demonstration stage, (4) the practice stage, (5) the reinforcement and feedback stage, and (6) the transfer stage.

Snyder and Giella make two major observations concerning the principals. First, the concepts and skills help each principal to focus more clearly on the nature of management tasks for developing a productive school through increased collaborative and group activities. Second, the competency development model has supported the learning process and the interaction of all concepts and skills for management competencies. The principals reported that their teachers were more involved in decision making in the areas of schoolwide goal setting, work group performance, individual staff performance, staff development, quality control, instructional programs, resources development, and assessing achievement. The principals' readiness to use group input has been a key factor in the program.

PRINCIPALS CAN PROVIDE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP—IT TAKES COMMITMENT

Sweeney, Jim. *Education*, Volume 103, Winter 1982, pp. 204-207.

Based on the findings of separate studies by Edmonds, Brookover, and Rutter and of work done by the Iowa State University Research Team, Sweeney asserts that principals do make a difference in terms of student achievement. Drawing from these studies, he lists behaviors of principals that typify effective instructional leadership and also lists specific activities that make a difference.

The effective principal emphasizes student achievement through discussions in faculty meetings, through reduction or elimination of class interruptions, through rewards for student achievement, and through stressing the importance of student achievement to parents.

A principal who is an effective instructional leader presents a systematic plan aimed at raising achievement, arranges inservice to increase staff knowledge of the plan, gains staff commitment to the plan, and communicates the thrust of the instructional program to the entire school community.

The effective principal coordinates school curriculum through facilitation of frequent departmental meetings and through meetings with department heads. He or she leads discussions related to curriculum and instruction at faculty meetings and facilitates the updating and use of curriculum guides.

The principal who is a successful instructional leader frequently evaluates student progress through the use of standardized and criterion-referenced tests. He or she discusses achievement data at faculty and departmental meetings and provides feedback on student achievement to parents and community.

The effective principal maintains an orderly atmosphere by maintaining high visibility and by enforcing group-based discipline standards. Teachers in schools with effective leadership also appear to be committed to the idea that an orderly atmosphere improves student outcomes.

The principal who is an effective instructional leader supports teachers by providing them with appropriate resources, by serving as a buffer between teachers and the public, and by ensuring a smooth organizational process. Activities are carved out with efficiency and with little disruption or turmoil.

From a review of several studies of principals who are effective instructional leaders, Sweeney concludes that they are goal- and result-oriented, "pushy" but conscious of the need for faculty commitment, persuasive, and knowledgeable of change process and of learning theory. They also provide a climate that promotes learning and that protects teachers from feared outside sources. He further concludes that it is reasonable to expect the average principal to display all of the qualities of an effective instructional leader but that such an outcome takes the commitment of training institutions, school boards, superintendents, and most importantly, principals themselves.

MOVING FROM MEDIOCRITY TO MASTERY

Tursman, Cindy. *The School Administrator*, Volume 39, June 1982, pp. 11-13.

Tursman reveals the techniques used by Superintendent John R. Champlin that transformed the Johnson City, New York, school system into an award-winning situation. She reports that Champlin used mastery learning as a key change agent and was eclectic in his approach to management.

Some techniques applied to the areas of change were Glasser's assertive discipline, management problem-solving sessions organized according to Japanese Quality Control Circles, and projects concerning school and organizational climate. Areas of management changed by Champlin in the school system include organizational health, goal clarity, readiness, status-quo breaking, leadership behaviors, community renorming, and system upgrading and renewing.

Concerned with mediocre standardized test scores and low morale, Champlin used consultants for specific purposes and applied the gradual nature of the change process and of the renorming of the community. Beginning with six elementary school teachers and 150 students, he began to slowly inject mastery learning into the school system. Even though Champlin practiced the gradual change process, he reminded other administrators of the importance of personal commitment and of the necessity of applying direct administrative procedures at times.

Using the concept of mastery learning as a tool, Champlin preferred to stress good teaching practices and behavior rather than to carry a "mastery" banner. In this light, Champlin himself taught several graduate level courses on mastery learning in the early mornings. He also provided other incentives to teachers, such as paid summer employment for curriculum planning.

Significant change has taken place at Johnson City in teaching behavior and practices. The teaching process involves teaming, is more student-oriented, and has more measurable goals. More attention is given to preentry skills and enrichment activities. Test results show students averaging well above the norm on the California Achievement Test.

PREPARING PRINCIPALS IN A SCHOOL-UNIVERSITY PARTNERSHIP

Wasden, F. Del, Ivan Muse, and Glen F. Ovard. *Principal*, Volume 67, September 1987, pp. 16-18.

The authors describe a partnership that was formed in 1984 by five Utah school districts and by Brigham Young University's College of Education. This partnership has primarily been concerned with the training of school principals. A task force on administrative training was established, including 10 principals, 5 professors, a representative from the state department of education, and John Goodlad as consultant. The task force enumerated the elements that should be included in a model training program for principals.

The Leader Preparation Program began in the summer of 1986. Fifteen interns were selected through a screening process. The interns received half their teaching salary and a $4,000 grant. During the summer, they took eight weeks of classes centering on fundamentals. During the school year, they became intern principals. They worked four days a week with a mentor principal. On Wednesdays, they worked at the university on modules in competency areas. After completing the 36-semester-hour course of study, the interns had met the requirements for a master's degree and for certification in educational leadership.

The modular curriculum was developed for the Leader Preparation Program. The courses are modular components taught by professors, by mentor principals, by superintendents, and by other professionals. A great deal of instruction takes place during the internships. Modifications can be made with ease in the content of the curriculum.

During the internship, students work in three different school settings with the mentor principals. The mentors are involved in the screening of applicants for internships. They teach sessions and supervise and evaluate the interns' work.

Evaluation is an important part of the Leader Preparation Program. The interns evaluate the curriculum. The mentors evaluate the interns; the interns evaluate the mentors. Changes in the program are made as needed.

Suggested Readings

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Gibble, Jacques L., and James D. Lawrence. "Peer Coaching for Principals," *Educational Leadership*, Volume 45, November 1987, pp. 72-73.

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McEvoy, Barbara. "Everyday Acts: How Principals Influence Development of Their Staff," *Educational Leadership*, Volume 44, February 1987, pp. 73-77.

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Petuzillo, Eileen, and Diane S. Scheinbart. "Principal as Curriculum Leader," *The Clearing House*, Volume 59, January 1986, pp. 206-210.

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TEACHER EDUCATION

Preservice and inservice programs for teachers have been modified and improved during recent years through various approaches. Preservice education has been affected by tighter entrance requirements, by speech tests, by quota systems, and by standardized entrance requirements. Emphasis on field experience has continued, and many systems require a competency-based approach to certification of teachers. Many observers have noted a decline in the quality of teacher education students as measured by standardized aptitude and achievement tests. Attempts to remedy this situation have been instigated in many institutions and systems around the country. There is a continuing interest in microteaching, evaluation, and computer programs in preservice education. An emphasis on recruitment of talented youth and on more content subject requirements has characterized many recent preservice programs.

Teacher education has received considerable interest from three recent national reform groups in their reports. These reports include (1) *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, (2) *Report on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy*, and (3) *Action for Excellence*. All three reports address problems in teacher certification, career ladders, teacher preparation, and teacher education institutions. These reports focus on various methods for strengthening teacher education programs, at both the preservice and inservice levels. Low morale, low salaries, lack of discipline, and lack of prestige have been identified as problem areas by these national groups. These problem areas lead directly into discussions about teacher evaluation, merit/incentive pay, uses of the National Teacher Examination (NTE), minimum competency criteria for teacher certification, and more basic content subject requirements for education majors.

The identification of successful preservice programs is difficult to ascertain because teacher education institutions use many and varied programs for prospective teachers. Means used in selecting participants include the Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT), the American College Test (ACT), grade point averages (GPA's), interviews, and combinations of these methods. Declining scores on these tests by education majors continue to create problems for teacher educators. At the conclusion of the teacher education program, many states require teacher competency testing prior to certification. This has been accomplished through the use of the NTE, of statewide tests such as Georgia's Teacher Performance Assessment Instrument (TPAI), or of locally developed tests designed by the district. Current preservice problems include students with marginal ability, low standards, and confusion over competency standards and evaluation. Many of these problems are being addressed by innovative programs at teacher education institutions across the country at this time. More attention is being provided for increased recruitment of prospective teachers, along with the strengthening of teacher education programs.

Several characteristics of successful inservice programs have been identified over the years. Successful inservice programs are continuous in nature, with a variety of options, including study of professional literature, graduate courses, staff development programs, individual programmed packages, group meetings, conferences, workshops, and retreats. Inservice programs are based on teacher needs and on teacher input in the formative stages. The programs provide practical application to the classroom, and evaluation is built in. Other characteristics include the use of teacher-made materials, released time for participants, and activities conducted at the school building level. An important characteristic of successful inservice programs is appropriate faculty involvement in curriculum development and change. Many studies have provided the basic building blocks for developing strong inservice programs.

A majority of inservice programs usually deal with teacher governance and teacher training. Special groups from professional organizations such as the National Science Teachers Association and the National Council of Teachers of English can provide exemplary leadership for inservice programs and can promote curriculum improvements in their respective subject-area fields. Professional organizations also provide access for information and resources for inservice education. Many staff development programs have been focused on national programs where workshops and materials have been validated with respect to their effectiveness.

A continuous search for stronger teacher evaluation techniques is closely related to competencies, performance standards, and merit pay. Many researchers are designing evaluation materials to provide a more systematic approach to the difficult area of teacher effectiveness. During the past 60 years, there have been studies relating to trait, behavioral, and situational theories of teaching that attempt to assess teachers and the components of teaching itself. Systematic analyses, performance instruments, and checklists are used to measure teacher effectiveness, along with many other innovative approaches to the identification of good teaching.

Forces affecting teacher education at the present time might be classified into three areas: academic, personal, and legal. Academic forces include declining student enrollments, the current economic situation of funding at all levels, parental pressures, more required basic courses, and the mastery of a set of competencies. The personal forces include the physical and psychological concerns of teachers, such as affiliation, time to teach, control of methods and content, and relaxation. This personal area is the focus for preventing or easing teacher burnout, which occurs when stress, tension, and anxiety override teachers' positive feelings about teaching. Many programs for burnout prevention have been designed for teachers. The personal aspect also includes the high incidence of violence and vandalism directed toward teachers. These factors, combined with the many external events involving the teaching process, contribute to certain mental health pressures inherent in teaching. The legal aspect involves legislative mandates, competency requirements, court rulings, and teacher strikes. Any of these legal pressures could be disruptive to teaching and could detract from classroom planning and management.

Teacher education programs are faced with many concerns. As a starting point, these programs can provide a greater in-depth knowledge of subject area content and more training in specialized areas. Preservice and inservice education can be strengthened when professionals provide expertise in defining the objectives of teacher training, design a sound sequence of laboratory experiences both in the classroom and in the field, and share responsibility between institutions and local schools in a productive, cooperative manner. The continuing pressures of funding, technology, burnout, accountability, and effective staff development have forced educators at all levels to closely examine current curriculum programs in K-12 classes and in higher education. The recruitment, development, and maintenance of a strong, professional corps of teachers across the country is a high priority item for the decade of the 1980's.

Representative Synopses

TEACHER-DIRECTED INSERVICE EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN INDIANA

Andrew, Carmen. *Phi Delta Kappan,* Volume 64, March 1983, pp. 504-505.

Andrew describes the Teacher-Directed Inservice Education Program of Lincoln Elementary School in Evansville, Indiana, which allowed teachers to take charge of their own learning by contracting for consultation during regular school hours to meet their specific needs. Two consultants, one in science and one in reading/language arts, were hired for 30 hours of work with the teachers, who had the option of working with either consultant, with both, or with neither.

The consultants became involved in a variety of activities during the year, assisting the teachers in field trip planning and in designing a scope/sequence chart for language arts skills at the beginning phase. The consultants also observed instruction, demonstrated techniques, served as instructional models, tested individuals, and conferred informally with the teachers. Flexibility was built into the program by the constant availability of the consultants.

Andrew states that the inservice program was effective and was based upon seven guidelines proposed by Mazzarella for designing effective programs. The southern Indiana inservice program was concrete, provided immediate feedback, addressed on-the-job needs, was ongoing, occurred at school, provided opportunities for observing models, and allowed the principal to take part in the inservice training program. The author summarizes by pointing out that all participants in this program benefited: the administrators, the teachers, the consultants, and the students, with the critical point being that these teachers had control over their own inservice program.

COOPERATING TEACHERS' PROBLEMS WITH PRESERVICE FIELD EXPERIENCE STUDENTS

Applegate, Jane H., and Thomas J. Lasley. *Journal of Teacher Education*, Volume 33, March-April 1982, pp. 15-19.

Applegate and Lasley report on a study involving cooperating teachers from 20 Ohio colleges and universities. The study used two data collection models, including the "My Biggest Problem Today" inventory and a Likert scale "Cooperating Teacher Checklist."

The findings showed that 13 of the 46 items appeared to be significantly problematic. Next, factor analysis was used to group the items into six generic problem areas. The six factors were (1) problems with students' orientation to teaching, (2) problems understanding the partnership of teaching, (3) problems with professionalism, (4) problems with field experience students' attitudes and skills, (5) problems with enthusiasm, and (6) problems with planning and organization.

The perception of cooperating teachers appeared to center around the lack of congruence between the experiences provided in the classroom and the goals established on campus. Cooperating teachers perceived that the parties involved in teacher education tended to disdain ownership of the problems implicit in field experiences.

In summary, the authors suggest that implications of the study include the need to establish procedures to more carefully train cooperating teachers to work with field experience students, to more adequately inform cooperating teachers what to expect from "apprentice" students, and to more precisely identify the expectations of a specific field experience.

REFRESHING THE TEACHING SPIRIT

Benson, Bernard W. *The Science Teacher*, Volume 49, September 1982, pp. 39-41.

Benson describes a cost-effective, self-sufficient minicourse program for teachers, developed through the Center for Environmental/Energy Education at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga. Informally, the center is referred to as CAMEL—an acronym for *C*reativity, *A*wareness, *M*otivation, and *E*nvironmental and energy education *L*iteracy. The organization of CAMEL is patterned after the federal guidelines on a Teacher Center Model.

The minicourse series provides an opportunity for self-renewal for preservice/inservice teachers and attempts to keep them "current" in relevant topics, which they can then apply in either elementary or secondary school instruction. Each three-part minicourse consists of (1) a four-hour session to explore the course theme and to identify ways of applying that theme in specific situations, (2) an interim period, during which teachers can develop a conceptual structure of the course and can also learn to apply those ideas, and (3) a six-hour session to apply the concepts of the course and to share application strategies. One example could be a minicourse on designing environmental classrooms and playgrounds. Other topic areas are urban geology; food supply—a global perspective; investigating energy basics; simulations in environmental education; and many others. The instructional sequences are based on learning cycles—an organizational idea underlying the Science Curriculum Improvement Study, relevant to a K-6 science program. Teachers typically meet on Friday evenings and Saturdays and may enroll in from one to six minicourses and receive one semester hour of credit for each course completed.

Benson finds it noteworthy that the program has attracted teachers who normally would not enroll in science or environmentally related courses. Many of the teachers have gone on to more advanced science courses after successfully completing the minicourses. The minicourse format has been developed to be compatible with the inservice programs sponsored by individual school systems. Benson finds the most promising attribute of minicourses as used in CAMEL is that they offer a feasible substitute for federally funded programs in teacher development.

RETOOLING TEACHERS: THE NEW YORK EXPERIENCE

Cooper, Bruce S. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 68, April 1987, pp. 486-490.

Cooper reports on a relicensing program created by the New York City Board of Education to stave off a rising teacher shortage in the areas of mathematics and science in its urban school districts. Rather than seek mathematics and science teachers from outside the system only, the board decided to "retool" from within its system those teachers who held teaching certificates in overstaffed fields such as English, history, and elementary education. The Mathematics and Science Re-Licensing Program, begun in 1984, invites teachers to participate free of charge for materials, textbooks, and courses taught by university professors on campus during the summer and after school hours.

The program is designed to be similar to an undergraduate major in mathematics or science. The program includes no methods courses, no philosophy or history of education courses, and no educational psychology courses, since these teachers are already licensed teachers. The various science and mathematics courses are designed especially for teachers and are open only to teachers. Candidates must also pass an examination given by the New York City Board of Examiners and must undergo a two-year probationary period after completing the program.

According to Cooper, the model is perhaps the largest math and science program in the nation that brings together so many different institutions to develop its staff. New York City funds the program; the United Federation of Teachers and the UFT Teacher Center cooperate in advertising the program; the New York City Board of Education sponsors the program; the district's Division of Curriculum and Instruction establishes and manages the program; and 11 universities and colleges participate in the course offerings. Cooper reports that nearly 400 of the over 1,000 participants have received new licenses at this time.

In conclusion, Cooper notes that the program can be adopted in other districts, although it does require extensive cooperation among various agencies. He points out that the program does offer distinct advantages to districts with teacher shortages, including (1) enhancement of choice by allowing teachers to take control of their own careers, (2) public reimbursement by stocking classrooms with licensed instruction in two critical shortage subjects, (3) institutional cooperation in staff development, and (4) adult development and emphasis on professional growth by avoiding the pitfalls of career ladders, which typically lead away from teaching and into administration. Such a program enhances teacher options and job security and gives teachers a new field of interest.

BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAMS: BENEFITS FOR THE EXPERIENCED EDUCATOR

Hawk, Parmalee. *Action in Teacher Education*, Volume 8, Winter 1986-1987, pp. 59-63.

Hawk describes a statewide teacher induction program that was implemented in North Carolina in 1985. The state guidelines specified that each beginning teacher would be provided with a support team composed of the new teacher's principal and a mentor teacher in the same building. In some cases, another teacher educator from the central office or from a neighboring college might also serve on the team. The support team members received one week of training in three areas: (1) defining their new role, (2) using the state's performance appraisal system, and (3) creating a professional development plan. The training was conducted by the state department of education and by a state university.

At the end of the year, support team members from three school systems responded to questionnaires and small group dimensions on their experiences as participants in the beginning teacher program. Respondents included 178 mentor teachers, 105 principals, and 36 supervisors. Using a five-point Likert scale, more than 99 percent of the support team members reported the assistance they had provided the beginning teachers was either helpful or very helpful, even though 50 percent of the team members felt they were not able to provide as much support as the beginning teachers needed. The main categories of assistance provided by support team members were (1) teaching strategies, (2) paperwork management, (3) listening, (4) materia~~ls~~ location, and (5) student management. Both mentor teachers and principals reported that they experienced positive professional growth through participation in the programs. Specific areas included honing of listening skills; using cooperative team approaches; improving evaluation skills; and sharing observations, concerns, and ideas with other professionals. A concern for more available time for working with the beginning teachers was noted by a majority of the support team members.

Hawk concludes that the support team members' perceptions of their own professional growth were very positive as a result of being involved with formalized beginning teacher programs. The support team members' responses indicated the importance that both direct and residual effects have on all involved professionals in a program of this type.

BEGINNING TEACHER INDUCTION: A PROGRESS REPORT

Hegler, Kay, and Richard Dudley. *Journal of Teacher Education,* Volume 38, January-February 1987, pp. 53-56.

Hegler and Dudley report on the implementation of an induction program as a component of teacher education reform and on the effectiveness of the program. Doane College instituted the program in 1983 in conjunction with the University of Nebraska at Lincoln. The induction program is designed to improve teacher performance, to increase the retention of promising beginning teachers, to promote personal and professional goals, and to aid teachers in becoming familiar with a school district's materials and resources along with community integration. In addition, the induction program provides strategies for acquiring knowledge and skills, helps in satisfying mandated requirements in certification, and assists in developing attitudes that foster effective teaching. College supervisors and support teachers work closely during the year with beginning teachers to accomplish the goals of the induction program. The final element of the induction program consists of a series of workshops for the beginning teachers during their second semester of teaching.

The Doane Teacher Education Program uses 15 teaching competencies to guide the selection of all content and experiences. These competencies are evaluated by personal observations of college supervisors and support teachers. In addition, the beginning teachers respond to a series of questionnaires during the year. The comprehensive evaluation provides a continuing picture of the total progress of each beginning teacher. A major value noted from the programs was that 95 percent of the beginning teachers remained in teaching through the fourth year.

Hegler and Dudley list several strengths of the induction program, including (1) the cohesiveness of the total developmental teacher approach, (2) the comprehensive evaluation system, (3) the particular recognition given to the support teacher as an essential member of the transition team, (4) the availability of the Doane Teacher Education Program to all graduates, (5) the breaking down of the social and professional isolation experienced by beginning teachers, and (6) the encouragement of self-evaluation and of reflection about teaching strategies as ways to identify alternatives for the classroom. Two weaknesses of the program identified at this point include the lack of equivalent support for all beginning teachers because of the distances involved and the lack of a training module for the support teachers. In this type of induction program, the authors stress the significant impact of the support teacher on the induction process.

BEGINNING TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MENTORS

Huffman, Gail, and Sarah Leak. *Journal of Teacher Education,* Volume 37, January-February 1986, pp. 22-25.

Huffman and Leak report on a study involving 108 beginning teachers in a school system located in a large city in the southeastern United States. After a year of implementation of a beginning-teacher support system, the 108 new teachers were asked their reactions to the mentoring program. Beginning teachers across all grade levels were assigned a support team consisting of the principal, the assistant principal for instruction, and a mentor selected by the principal. Also, personnel from a local university assisted with the Beginning Teacher Program throughout the year.

The mentor and other support team members were asked to observe and evaluate beginning teachers at least once a month, using a performance appraisal system that focused on six components of teaching: (1) management of student behavior, (2) management of instruction time, (3) instructional monitoring, (4) instruction presentation, (5) instruction feedback, and (6) content. Formal and informal conferences followed these observations, and mentors were provided release time to work with the new teachers during the year.

The findings showed that 96 percent of the respondents soundly endorsed the mentor role as being an important element in the induction process. Mentors provided encouragement, collegiality, and specific helpful suggestions for the improvement of teaching. The fact that a person had been formally designated as one to whom the beginners could turn for assistance was also found to be important. The respondents ranked "Management of Student Behavior," "Instruction Presentation," and "Content" as the areas in which they received the most help from their mentors. Additional findings suggested that having a mentor who teaches the same grade level or subject area as the new teacher was highly desirable. Also, providing adequate time for informal and formal conferencing, planning, and conversation between the mentor and the new teacher was a primary factor in meeting the needs of the new teachers. Informal conferencing with mentors was particularly valuable to the beginning teachers.

In summary, the authors stress the importance of mentors to the induction process of beginning teachers. The authors conclude that further research is necessary to provide more information for the effectiveness of mentors. These areas for further research include selection of mentors, training topics for mentors, incentives/rewards for mentors, and further study regarding the amount of time required for mentors to adequately address the needs of beginning teachers.

INTERACTIVE RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT MAKES A DIFFERENCE

Huling, Leslie L. *Action in Teacher Education,* Volume 4, Winter 1982, pp. 37-40.

Huling reports on a study conducted at Texas Tech University using interactive research and development (IR&D). This research strategy brings classroom teachers, university researchers, and staff development personnel together to work as a team to research questions of concern to teachers on the team and to plan collaboratively a means to disseminate their research findings. This inservice strategy was developed by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development and has been adapted by the College of Education at Texas Tech to meet several needs.

Three instruments were used in the study, the primary instrument being the Stages of Concern About the Innovation Questionnaire, which describes seven kinds of concerns that individuals experience at various times in the change process. The other two instruments were the Research-Teaching-Development Skills Questionnaire and the Professional Development Questionnaire. The findings showed that the participating teachers demonstrated (1) significantly greater changes in concerns about the use of research findings and practices, (2) significantly greater increases in research, teaching, and development skills than those who did not participate in an IR&D project, and (3) positive attitudes toward the use of research findings and practices in teaching. The author points out that IR&D can provide the teaching profession with more field-based research on topics deemed important by classroom teachers. IR&D attempts to emphasize practicality and consistency with classroom realities.

In summary, Huling finds that IR&D proved to be an effective strategy to help teachers in developing skills for using and conducting classroom research as an inservice approach to solving various problems. The project at Texas Tech also strengthened the working relationship between university and school district personnel. The combination of classroom research and professional development was a valid alternative in this inservice study.

MAKE THE CHORE OF STUDENT TEACHERS A REASON TO CHEER

Marlowe, John, and Sylvia Key. *The Executive Educator,* Volume 9, November 1987, pp. 18-19.

Marlowe and Key describe the student-teaching intern program at Albany High School, located near Oakland, California. For the past two years, the 35-teacher staff has been bolstered by a good number of interns. Taking a lesson from teaching hospitals by taking advantage of a vast, undervalued pool of talent to ease the work load of the faculty has characterized the program.

The Albany High School intern program is based on the philosophy that the student-teaching program can benefit everyone concerned—teachers, interns, administrators, and students. The program has identified the following key factors: (1) creative energy passes between novice and veteran, (2) interns free up time for veteran teachers, (3) students gain because the best interns are selected, (4) interns feel accepted as members of the faculty, and (5) the school cultivates a ready-made pool of talent for employment purposes. From the practical experience gained through the program, the authors list five guidelines for organization. These include preparing the staff, choosing a site coordinator, working closely with teacher colleges, matching interns with teachers, and working closely with the selected interns. The key to helping interns has been through observation and evaluation. Supervising teachers join in partnership with college evaluators to perform these two functions. To reinforce this support, interns are invited to sit in on seminars on education theory and on faculty inservice training programs. A further finding of this program has been the necessity to keep everyone informed. The site supervisor plays a key role by providing the staff, from the principal to the custodian, with the names, schedules, and classrooms of interns. The strongest criticism has been that some students find themselves with several interns during the day. Schedule changes are made when parents become concerned about this situation.

Marlowe and Key state that the intern program does not do anything that has not been tried before. The difference has been that the Albany program has tried harder and has spent many extra hours working with interns. Finally, the authors indicate that with the nationwide teacher shortages, most schools need the interns more than the interns need the schools.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CENTERS: THE UTAH EXPERIMENT

Nutting, William C. *Phi Delta Kappan,* Volume 63, February 1982, pp. 394-395.

Nutting describes a collaborative experiment in teacher education involving the University of Utah and three Utah school districts. Designed in 1978 for college and public school personnel in elementary and early childhood education, seven school-based professional development centers were established to assist in (1) student teaching and other preservice field experiences, (2) inservice faculty and staff development activities, and (3) research on teaching strategies.

The rationale behind the development of the seven centers was collaboration between college and public school personnel to improve student teaching. A key element of the program is that the principals of the seven elementary schools, who hold university appointments as adjunct assistant professors in the Division of Elementary Education, direct the centers in their respective buildings. The host/guest relationship is replaced by a more straightforward professor/student relationship in the seven centers. In addition to the principal, each center has a coordinator, who is a faculty member from the Division of Elementary Education who specializes in instructional improvement, curriculum planning, and organizational innovation.

One noteworthy change in the preservice training is that the teacher education majors are assigned to a general student-teacher pool in each center, not to a particular classroom teacher. This allows for more flexibility and assures each student teacher a good balance of continuity and variety in teaching experiences. Student teachers also observe a variety of master teachers at work in the classroom. Inservice activities for the teaching staff include sharing ideas, modeling through demonstration lessons, attending workshops, belonging to advisory committees, developing curriculum materials, producing media exhibits, and writing training programs. The research component is engaged in three areas of teaching: (1) instruction, (2) curriculum development, and (3) intraschool organization.

Nutting notes that the reviews on the program have been mixed. The college personnel have consistently shown enthusiasm and optimism about the program, but they also feel the concept of professional development centers has yet to achieve its full potential. He further points out that the rewards for the classroom teachers who serve as adjunct assistant professors have not been commensurate with the professional expectations of the role. In summary, the author states that the benefits of the program so far have been largely institutional and not individual in nature.

A MODEL UNIVERSITY-SCHOOL SYSTEM COLLABORATION IN TEACHER INDUCTION

O'Dell, Sandra J. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, Volume 22, Summer 1986, pp. 120-121.

O'Dell describes an ongoing teacher induction program—the APS/UNM Teacher Induction Program. The program addresses the needs and concerns of beginning teachers and assists them in their transition from student to teacher. The APS/UNM Teacher Induction Program is a collaborative effort between the Albuquerque public schools and the University of New Mexico. This program gives inductive support for all beginning teachers in the elementary schools in the system, university graduate interns, experienced teachers new to the school system, and special education teachers who will now be teaching regular classrooms.

One unique component of the program is the "no additional" cost teacher-exchange component. It releases veteran teachers from classroom duty while maintaining their salary and benefits so that they can provide inductive support to first-year teachers. Graduate interns that replace the veteran teachers receive a tuition waiver and a stipend equal to one-half of a beginning teacher's salary. The school system and the university collaborate on the selection of all personnel and on the planning and evaluation.

The graduate interns teach one year while receiving academic credit toward a Master of Arts degree in teaching. The beginning teachers receive support from the veteran teachers who visit their classrooms regularly. The veteran teachers' visits are nonevaluative. The beginning teachers are free to share weaknesses and concerns in a supportive and nonjudgmental atmosphere. Additionally, inservice training workshops are provided for the beginning teachers, with university credit awarded.

This program provides the beginning elementary teachers of the Albuquerque public school system with needed support under the guidance of the educational leadership of the University of New Mexico's teaching-training program. It offers a formal and informal education to the beginning and veteran teachers who participate.

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STUDENT-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Student-school relationships are closely related to a variety of cultural and economic settings of the adult world. Many of the same problems affecting the business world also have an impact on students. Administrator and teacher attitudes, along with the educational climate of a school, relate closely to student concerns and the resulting behavioral outcomes. A positive, humanistic climate provides the foundation for both cognitive and affective learning to take place. These cognitive and affective skills provide students with a frame of reference for studying values, self-concept, moral education, and character development.

Despite many humanistic programs for students around the country, students are still very much concerned about safety, vandalism, communication, learning styles, activities, their own perceptions, and health problems, along with many personal and private concerns that are difficult to categorize on a large scale. The area of student responsibility to school and community is another critical concern of thoughtful students. In the recent past, student-school relationships have been identified and treated through many approaches, including behavior modification, values clarification, and assertive control. Teachers were provided workshops where techniques and tips were offered for solving discipline problems through books, films, and presentations on classroom control. Occasionally, statistical studies of student violence and vandalism would be presented to administrators and teachers. Interviews with strong educational leaders have pointed out the importance of rules, expectations, enforcement, and responses to student concerns. All of the approaches designed to address student-school relationships have been similar in many respects. Historically, U.S. schools have been authoritarian in nature, with little practice of self-discipline. This aspect has characterized most of the recent approaches to identifying and working with student concerns. Despite the fact that some gaps exist in our knowledge of discipline and control, various approaches have been attempted to assist students. Some of these approaches have been peer tutoring, time-out rooms, and more parental involvement. In some of these programs, student input is a very definite asset to the overall accomplishment of positive outcomes.

Many of the programs designed to assess student concerns address problems that tend to go beyond the scope of the school. These problems include nutrition and behavior, violence/vandalism, drug abuse, dropouts, and community relations. The schools have attempted to provide services that have severely taxed the resources of many of the schools involved. These programs continue to stress respect for self and others, development of interpersonal skills for solving social problems, formation of group discussions, and recognition of individual differences. These affective outcomes, with emphasis on the ability to relate to others, continue to be a top priority in most of these programs and have a close relationship to the cognitive domain.

Research studies at the national, state, and local levels indicate that approximately 21 percent of all students exhibit some form of emotional or behavioral problem during the school year. This makes it necessary for classroom teachers to develop skills in both cognitive and affective areas so that they may be able to cope with a variety of problems. This development process may involve workshops on truancy, drug abuse, nutritional problems, and legal aspects of management and control. Many student problems have legal implications for administrators, teachers, and students. Educators have to be aware of court rulings affecting student dress, student disruption, and student due process as guaranteed by the First Amendment of the Constitution of the United States. To assist students with various types of problems, many school districts have developed programs that provide opportunities for self-development, self-discipline, and individually tailored educational experiences. In some of these programs, community resources are provided through field trips, business consultants, cooperative programs with industry, and joint community projects. More and more joint school-community programs and projects have been initiated in the past five years. These programs have assisted to a large degree in working with many and varied student concerns.

A key factor in student-school relationships is student-parent communication as the basis for developing successful programs that address student behavior and concerns. Parental input has played an important role in coordinating community-school programs. Parents have served as volunteers and have acquired new insights into the working of the school. Many school districts encourage a closer student-parent relationship by sponsoring parent nights and joint student-parent projects for academic or community purposes. Many schools have incorporated parent volunteers into the curriculum of the school, thereby improving the academic program.

It is quite apparent that educators need many skills to work with student-school relationships. These include physical, academic, psychological, and emotional skills. Supportive skills from the affective domain are necessary but may be a neglected area for many classroom teachers. Also, skills in legal aspects, health problems, drug abuse techniques, and counseling approaches are important in dealing with student concerns. There are many forces affecting student-school relationships. Some of the critical forces are legal decisions, community support, changing learning styles, technological advances, more student freedom, and the cultural environment of students. Since many student concerns fall outside the school day, educators must devote more thought and planning to the community and cultural aspects of students and their particular environment.

Many educators are placing an increasing emphasis on motivation and relevance in the curriculum. This involves students in making decisions on their own and in practicing self-direction and self-discipline. The broad area of student-school relationships begins to open up when students are involved in decision making. As confidence is gained by students, their concerns are addressed by a cooperative team effort involving students, teachers, and the community. Recognizing this as a critical area, many districts across the country are implementing supportive, personalized programs that develop positive student input and implementation. Both school and community responsibility have been emphasized in many of the successful programs addressing student-school relationships. Teachers are provided opportunities for going beyond the classroom to assist students. People of the community recognize that such opportunities are important factors in the educational process. The implications noted in these student-oriented programs are that teachers must become more community-oriented and that students will play an increasingly important role in dealing with their own concerns. Thoughtful student-school relationships can provide teachers with an excellent opportunity to assist students in both academic and cultural settings through school and community cooperation.

Representative Synopses

A SCHOOL-BASED HEALTH CLINIC FOR ADOLESCENTS

Blum, Robert William, Kathleen Pfaffinger, and W. Brooks Donald. *The Journal of School Health,* Volume 52, October 1982, pp. 486-490.

The authors describe a health clinic based in a Minnesota high school, jointly developed by the Adolescent Health Program of the University of Minnesota, the Community University Health Care Center, and school personnel. School administrators, parents, student groups, and clinic patrons held numerous meetings to plan the work of the clinic.

The health clinic emphasizes family planning services. It was agreed that these services would include pregnancy counseling, pelvic examinations, pregnancy testing, and contraception prescriptions. To support these family planning services, psychological support groups, as well as weight and body-image counseling, are provided. The medical personnel work closely with the school nutritionist and with the school social worker. A basic tenet of the clinic has been that the clinic is closely integrated with existing school health and social services. When the clinic was started, less than 50 percent of the school population had an identified primary care physician, so many of the school youth used the clinic for crisis and emergency services. In addition to family planning services, the clinic is involved with acute minor illnesses, treatment of sexually transmitted diseases, trauma visits, and sports examinations. Adolescents are reluctant to seek health care in ordinary circumstances, but the clinic in the school solves this problem.

The authors conclude that a comprehensive school clinic can provide needed, accessible services that are readily accepted by adolescents in medically underserved communities. The authors emphasize that school-based clinics provide the opportunity to integrate health and education, as demonstrated by this large high school in Minnesota.

HOW SAFE ARE STUDENTS IN SCHOOL?

Cacha, Frances. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, Volume 18, Spring 1982, pp. 72-73.

Cacha reports on the Safe School Study, which was sponsored by the National Institute of Education. This study was regulated by Congress to determine the number of schools with serious crime problems, the nature of the violence, and how it can be prevented.

This extensive research was based on a mail survey, an on-site survey, and case studies of schools. Principals, teachers, and students all had input into this study. Some of the findings revealed that school violence has leveled off and has declined somewhat since the 1960's. However, serious crime was still experienced by 8 percent of the schools, with theft being the most frequent crime. Personal attacks on students accounted for slightly over 1 percent of the population. Serious injury occurred more often in urban areas. Geographically, the study revealed that schools were more violent in the northeastern and western states, as compared with schools in the north central and southern states. Younger secondary students, grades 7-9, were more likely to be attacked or robbed than students at any other grade level. Males committed more violent acts than females. Suburban and rural schools both were found to be safer than urban schools.

Within schools, the study noted that classrooms were the safest places, whereas crowded areas, such as halls and stairs, presented the greatest risks. Other high-risk areas were restrooms, lunchrooms, locker rooms, and gyms. Cacha points out that the most important factors associated with safety were related to the governance of the school. In particular, the principal was the key factor in maintaining order. The study also found that, usually, both the victims and the offenders were of the same age, sex, and race.

Cacha summarizes the Safe School Study by noting that safer schools had a principal who was a visible and strong educational leader. Additionally, safer schools had a fair governance system and had both a faculty and student body committed to quality teaching and learning, with a strong curriculum program undergirding the school. This is one area where positive improvement can occur through careful planning and through a cooperative effort between school and community.

A TEXAS COMMUNITY UNITES TO KEEP DRUGS OUT OF SCHOOLS

Davidson, Jack L. *The Executive Educator,* Volume 9, July 1987, p. 26.

Davidson describes the antidrug campaign in Tyler, Texas, which was called "Tyler Says No." Tyler, a city of 80,000, involved wide participation in the antidrug program at the beginning. Through the efforts of the Tyler Area Chamber of Commerce, more than 130 local community leaders chaired various groups in an overall program designed to combat drug abuse in Tyler and surrounding Smith County. A wide spectrum of the community, including medical doctors, attorneys, university professors, Boy Scouts, civic clubs, the press, and others, combined their efforts with the local school system to develop the program.

The antidrug program began in January and ended in April. The Tyler schools participated by conducting essay contests, putting on dramatic presentations, and holding classroom discussions on the points of drug use. Speakers, including former drug users, celebrities, police officers, and rehabilitation personnel made in-school presentations. This program was supplemented by films on drug abuse, and the regional science fair focused on the dangers of drug abuse. One week in March was designated as community special emphasis week, in which the community coordinated and tied together the efforts of the three-month campaign.

Davidson points out that although the campaign ended in March, the antidrug efforts are continuous and ongoing. The work of the planning committee on follow-up and referrals continues, as does the provision for resource materials of local services offering drug treatment and education. Evaluation of the program showed an increased awareness of and general knowledge about drug abuse in Tyler and the surrounding area. The author concludes that the key to success for the program was the combined community efforts working in close coordination with the school district.

SOCIAL SERVICES IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Farrar, Eleanor, and Robert L. Hampel. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 69, December 1987, pp. 297-303.

Farrar and Hampel report on their research, sponsored by the Carnegie Corporation, involving eight high schools and their relationship to provision for social services. Eight high schools were studied, ranging in size from 1,200 to more than 3,000 students. Most of the schools had substantial nonwhite enrollments and drew students from disadvantaged neighborhoods, while two of the schools served upper-middle-class communities. The eight schools could be described as suburban and urban schools with diverse student populations. The study was motivated by the findings of an earlier study, Theodore Sizer's *Study of High Schools,* which revealed the high level of staff concern and school resources devoted to students whose emotional problems interfered with their ability to take advantage of academic programs.

The authors found that individuals who provided social service tended not to share common responsibilities. Differentiation was very extensive among the nonacademic staff, which provided the bulk of social services. Three subspecialties—school security, career planning, and special education—fostered the segmentation of the social service staff. The large number of students involved in substance abuse, early sexual activity, and teen parenting also caused differentiation among subgroups of the social service staff. Another key finding was that the matching of students and service was extremely informal because members of the social service staff enjoyed a high degree of autonomy and discretion in their daily work. Administrators in the eight schools rarely tried to coordinate the activities of the social services staff, which led to a lack of systematic record keeping. Also, some legal and medical problems were covered by specific laws and district policies, while drug and alcohol abuse were more complicated problems because of their inherent nature. A further finding was that when social service staff members referred students to outside agencies, follow-up action by the school was relatively rare.

Farrar and Hampel conclude by noting that social services are characterized by ambiguity and volatility. A formal organization to deal with pregnancy, alcoholism, divorce, eating disorders, suicide, and other grave problems is carried out through a rather informal delivery system. Many student problems can be classified as both ambiguous and controversial. Therefore, in many situations, the informal delivery system is the only approach that works in providing needed social services.

ACADEMIC ASSISTANCE PROGRAM HELPS STRUGGLING STUDENTS

Grunska, Gerald. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 70, December 1986, pp. 119-121.

Grunska describes a special academic assistance program set up by the administration and school board of Highland Park High School in Illinois. The program is designed to help those students who dissolve under academic pressure or who can never quite cope with the rigors and expectations of sophisticated curricula. The students are not necessarily intellectually deficient or underachieving. They have not been identified for special education, nor are they students whose basic problem is behavioral or antisocial in nature.

The operation of the academic assistance program includes a director, a teacher aide, and student volunteers who tutor during study hall. The intent of the program is to provide a tutorial service for students who are apparently not able to function on at least an average level.

Counselors and teachers recommend students to the Center, and students are free to "refer" themselves. When a student enters the program, a brief introductory interview is conducted, where the student describes his or her problem and articulates reasons for the difficulty. Students are asked to outline a general plan for attacking the problems and are asked for a specific commitment.

Students report to the Center during a study hall. If they are preparing for a test, the tutor will quiz them orally, using the student's class notes, lab summaries, study guides, or text as the base of information. Sometimes help will be given in the form of vocabulary drill or in the recitation of facts or formulas. Students may use the tutors as sounding boards for essay ideas or as editors to help students generate appropriate phrasing for comparison-contrast themes.

Results of the program have found the basis of academic problems to be faulty perceptions. Many students do not know what the teacher expects of them and often suffer from lack of self-confidence. The Center deals with these problems by greeting all reports with elaborate enthusiasm. The chief factor of success in the Center has been identified as the caring atmosphere.

CHILD-CUSTODY ISSUES AND THE SCHOOLS

Hempe, A. Henry, and William Decker. *The American School Board Journal,* Volume CLXXIV, June 1987, pp. 27-28.

Hempe and Decker describe a systemwide policy on school-related rights of divorced parents in the Beloit, Wisconsin, school district. The policy was instituted because of the complex problems involved in child custody as it relates to the school. Questions such as who may pick up the child from school, who may attend parent-teacher conferences, and who gets invited to school functions can be complex and can have legal significance for all involved. In 1982, the school board created a committee consisting of divorce lawyers, clinical social workers, school administrators, and a judge to recommend a policy for resolving disputes between custodial and noncustodial parents. Because of the high numbers of "no fault" divorces, the policy included wide roles for noncustodial parents, yet it also included appropriate protection against noncustodial parents who have been restricted by the courts.

The procedure begins when a parent enrolls a child and the enrollment form asks whether there is any completed or pending legal action affecting the family. The school system abides by the most recent court order that determines the status of the parents. If one parent is restricted, this is duly noted. If there are no court-imposed restrictions, the board policy mandates that the noncustodial parent be given the same information as the custodial parents. The policy further guarantees that the noncustodial parent be entitled to participate in all school activities to which the custodial parent is invited. The policy does prohibit visitation between the noncustodial parent and the child during school hours unless visitation is specifically permitted by court order. Also, a child cannot be released to a noncustodial parent during school hours.

Hempe and Decker note that the Beloit school district's policy has made the schools' responses to parents undergoing divorce even-handed and predictable. Principals no longer find themselves caught in the legal cross-fire between divorcing parents. The policy places the situation with the courts to resolve.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL: A SURVEY OF PARENTS OF HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Leyser, Yona. *Contemporary Education*, Volume 57, Fall 1985, pp. 38-43.

Leyser reports on a survey, designed to obtain the perceptions and thoughts of a large sample of parents of children who are disabled, regarding the parents' relationships and involvement with school, their level of satisfaction, and their recommendations and suggestions on how to improve parent-school relationships. The survey drew 325 responses from parents of a mid-sized midwestern community. The parents represented a low economic level, with about one-half being members of minority cultures.

The students whose parents were surveyed were enrolled in special education classes at the elementary or junior high level. The students included a wide range of those with special education needs, including students who are behaviorally disordered (BD), learning disabled (LD), educable mentally handicapped (EMH), and speech and language impaired (SLI). A small number of students were physically/perceptually disabled. The parents responded to 30 open-ended questions relating their participation and involvement with the child's school and program.

One of the main findings from the survey was that the level of involvement/participation of many parents proved to be quite low. The parents had not attended conferences or small group parent meetings for a variety of reasons. Many parents did not feel competent to assume the responsibility for helping in the development of their child's educational program. A second major finding was that the parents were highly satisfied with the educational program provided to their children, despite the parents' limited contact with the school. The survey further revealed that two of the main obstacles mentioned by parents as reasons for their low involvement were the scheduling of conferences and transportation.

Leyser summarizes the findings of the survey by noting that special education teachers should be provided with more extensive training in areas such as parent counseling and conferring techniques in order to help these teachers work more effectively with the parents of children who are disabled. Parental involvement becomes a key factor in working with children with special needs.

DROPOUT PREVENTION: AN INTERVENTION MODEL FOR TODAY'S HIGH SCHOOLS

Maurer, Richard E. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 63, March 1982, pp. 470-471.

Maurer describes Project Intercept at Ossining High School in New York State. Project Intercept is an EASA Title IV-C project sponsored by the New York State Education Department. Because of poor attendance, dropouts, and suspensions, school officials decided to develop Project Intercept, including changes based on four major strategies: (1) teacher/staff inservice training, (2) alternative academic programs for high-risk potential dropouts, (3) student training in social and interpersonal skills, and (4) family intervention training.

The project was designed so that each strategy was to be phased in over a three-year period. The primary goal was to reduce the rates of dropouts, suspensions, failures, and truancies. There were two secondary goals. One goal was to improve teacher competence in classroom management, discipline, and instructional techniques. The other goal was to develop more appropriate interpersonal behaviors and more positive self-concepts among students identified as possible dropouts. By the third year of the project, 50 percent of the teachers were participating, and 17 specific teaching competencies had been identified. Also, the family intervention portion of the project now included parental training workshops in communication and discipline. Local churches, other schools, community agencies, and private homes became Project Intercept training centers.

The effectiveness of the program was demonstrated by a decrease in dropout rate for all students, from 6 percent in 1977 to 3 percent in 1980. The dropout rate for high-risk students involved in Project Intercept was 3 percent, while similarly identified students in the control group, who received no treatment, had a dropout rate of 32 percent. The absentee rate for students in the treatment program decreased by 16 percent, while the absentee rate for students in the control group increased to 42 percent. Failure and suspension rates also showed similar findings.

Maurer concludes that the effectiveness of Project Intercept can be traced to the interrelated nature of the four major elements of the plan. Each of the four strategies impacted on each other with the positive results noted in this cooperative program.

HUMAN RIGHTS: A VEHICLE FOR CULTURAL INTERVENTION

St. Clair, Robert. *The Clearing House*, Volume 60, September 1986, pp. 27-29.

When forced with a "repeating crisis" of cultural clashing each time new students from Southeast Asia would arrive at

Hopkins West Junior High School in Minnetonka, Minnesota, the principal began to look for a solution.

St. Clair states that the more the adult staff "owned" the problem, the less progress was made. The acceptance of one human being by another could not be legislated. The teachers and administrators were able to enforce the policy, but the spirit of acceptance was not found at the student level. With this knowledge, St. Clair and the teachers took their concern to the school's student government, asking if it would seek volunteers to serve on a task force that would examine the issue of human rights in the school. The president of the student body chaired the group, which had a clear majority of students as members. Other members included interested parents and teachers.

In order to get a complete picture of the kinds of human rights violations taking place, the student task force held meetings with each grade level during school time. In these meetings, students gave testimony about violations that had happened to them or to their friends. An accurate record of the complaints was made, and the task force then categorized the various problems. From this list, the students drew up statements specifying the rights that applied to each instance. The rough draft of the list of rights was then taken back to each constituent's group—students, teachers, and parents. Feedback was then incorporated into a final document, which was then endorsed by the official decision-making body for each group. A final document was then published in the student handbook as a "Statement of Human Rights."

St. Clair states that the publication setting forth the school's human rights views did not do away with bigotry, scapegoating, and persecution but that there is a significant difference in the way these issues are now handled. The students are now actively involved in reporting, educating, and solving problems of human rights violations.

A SURVEY ON CAUSES OF SCHOOL VANDALISM

Venturini, Joseph L. *The High School Journal*, Volume 66, October-November 1982, pp. 7-9.

Venturini reports on a survey he conducted on the causes of vandalism in middle and secondary schools in a northeastern United States geographical setting. The one-page survey instrument was administered to over 300 students.

The survey instrument contained five sets of questions, which could be responded to by "yes" or "no" answers. The first question attempted to identify those students who vandalized schools by pointedly asking if they vandalized schools. The remaining questions assessed home and family relations, personal feelings, the school setting, and the community setting. These topical areas were chosen from what was reported in educational literature and in interviews with school administrators. Venturini found that 55 percent of the respondents had never vandalized a school. In terms of the 45 percent who vandalized schools, females were found to be vandals as often as males who responded. Almost all vandals indicated they did not like their family life and did not get enough freedom at home. The author notes that these results indicate that some youngsters may attack the school to release frustrations that originated in the home.

In questions of a personal nature, the vandals used more drugs than nonvandals, watched more violent programs on television, did not feel good about themselves, and felt a great need to "get even" with someone. These patterns revealed that these youngsters had a need to vent their feelings on the school building and equipment. The school-related items showed that vandals had percentages from 20 to 32 points lower than nonvandals in the categories of liking school, of liking their teachers and principal, and of liking their courses. The community-related questions showed that vandals disliked the community more than the nonvandals did, but only to a small degree.

Venturini notes that this limited survey does show differences between vandals and nonvandals. Youngsters with family problems, personal problems, and school-related problems appear more likely to become involved in acts of vandalism toward the school. Schools can assist in school-related problems, but home and family problems require help from specialists. The home and school environments play a definite role in the reduction of vandalism, and the author suggests school-home partnership programs to achieve this goal.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES: WHAT ARE THE PROBLEMS NOW?

Vornberg, James A., et al. *The Clearing House,* Volume 56, February 1983, pp. 269-270.

The authors report on a survey of a stratified random sample of public high schools in Arkansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Texas relating to problems in student activities. Problems about participation, costs, and student perceptions of these activities were components of this study and of some earlier studies on student activities.

The principals surveyed in these schools were asked to respond to open-ended questions identifying three problem areas with respect to activities programs. These responses were weighted according to the significance placed on them by the principals. The findings showed that four problems clearly stood out as major areas of concern: (1) participation of noninvolved students, (2) sponsors, (3) time allotment for meetings and activities, and (4) budget limitations. There were 10 other problems identified by at least three schools, and these problems included student apathy, fund raising, loss of instructional time, transportation, lack of faculty interest, and other problems of a similar nature.

The last section of the survey called for student responses dealing with reasons for nonparticipation. The students in the survey listed 17 reasons for nonparticipation, with the top five being: (1) not relevant to needs or interests, (2) took up time from school work, (3) scheduled during work time, (4) not elected or selected, and (5) controlled by social groups.

The authors acknowledge that many current problems plague student activities programs, but they feel that being familiar with the reasons underlying these problems will assist school personnel in improving their programs. Further, they believe that the importance of student activities merits the effort.

CROSSING THE CULTURAL DIVIDE

Willett, Richard E., and Paula A. Roy. *The Science Teacher,* Volume 49, May 1982, pp. 32-35.

Willett and Roy describe a special program for seniors at Westfield High School in New Jersey designed to examine the relationship between science and the humanities. The course is entitled "Two Cultures: Fact, Fantasy, or Fiction." The course is based on ideas from C. P. Snow's *Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution* and John Hersey's *The Triumph of Numbers,* a review of Snow's concerns.

Westfield High offers the "Two Cultures" course each spring. Two teachers, one representing the scientific and the other representing the cultural viewpoint, plan, gather materials, and lead students on a quest for meaningful questions about the relationship between science and the humanities. Several major questions emerge, including: (1) Why does a significant gap exist between science and the humanities? (2) On what basis do fear, doubt, and misunderstanding exist between the two? (3) Why does this gap endanger civilization? and (4) How can we close the gap? The teachers use a variety of activities such as films, research, readings, values clarification exercises, invited speakers, and discussions to probe and analyze these deep questions. The authors point out that on a personality traits profile, most students lean toward the humanities, while on a Likert forced-choice inventory, where students rank professions by salary and by importance to society, almost all accord scientists and physicians the highest priority. This dichotomy in values illustrates a concern expressed by Snow that a large part of our practical life is split in two. The students then proceed to discuss the problems associated with pursuing knowledge in either scientific or cultural areas. Creativity is studied extensively from both viewpoints.

From speculation about the nature of distrust between the scientific and humanistic cultures, the class moves on to moral and ethical issues. To conclude the unit, a problem is presented in which the students must choose between a humanities grant from the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) and a science grant from the National Science Foundation (NSF). The community can accept only one of the grants. The students must decide which one. The class is divided into two groups, scientists and humanists, to make presentations to persuade the board of education to accept their plan. Both student teams draw up programs that attempt to reconcile science and the humanities by focusing on interdisciplinary courses.

The authors point out that one immediate result of the "Two Cultures" unit has been adjustments and experiments in the curriculum to generate new study units that are interdisciplinary in scope, with the final goal of producing well-rounded and well-educated students. Student and teacher contributions have been key elements in the success of this interdisciplinary unit.

Suggested Readings

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Comer, James P. "New Haven's School-Community Connection," *Educational Leadership*, Volume 44, March 1987, pp. 13-16.

Comer, James P. "Parent Participation in the Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 67, February 1986, pp. 442-446.

Dierenfield, Richard B. "Religious Influence in American Public Schools," *The Clearing House*, Volume 59, May 1986, pp. 390-392.

Epstein, Joyce L. "Parent Involvement: State Education Agencies Should Lead the Way," *Community Education Journal*, Volume 14, July 1987, pp. 4-10.

Gray, Sandra T. "Community Education Programs as Catalysts for Increased Giving and Volunteering," *Community Education Journal*, Volume 14, April 1987, pp. 20-22.

Lamm, Richard D. "Can Parents Be Partners?," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 68, November 1986, pp. 211-213.

McDonald, Alice. "Solving Educational Problems Through Partnerships," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 67, June 1986, pp. 752-753.

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McLaughlin, Milbrey W., and Patrick M. Shields. "Involving Low-Income Parents in the Schools: A Role for Policy?," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 69, October 1987, pp. 156-160.

Schmitt, Donald. "Parents and Schools as Partners in Preschool Education," *Educational Leadership*, Volume 44, November 1986, pp. 40-41.

Smith, Roy A. "A Teacher's Views on Cooperative Learning," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 68, May 1987, pp. 663-666.

Tozer, Steve. "Dominant Ideology and the Teacher's Authority," *Contemporary Education*, Volume 56, Spring 1985, pp. 148-153.

Wangberg, Elaine G. "The Complex Issue of Teacher Stress and Job Dissatisfaction," *Contemporary Education*, Volume 56, Fall 1984, pp. 11-15.

EVALUATION AND ACCOUNTABILITY

The evaluation of educational programs and personnel has achieved a new level of interest in the 1980's. With the release of reports such as the *Nation at Risk* and with the acute economic crisis encountered by most school systems, members of the the public are asking for evidence of quality in their educational programs. They are demanding objective justification for program cut-backs or even for program continuation in some cases. Similarly, they expect a local response to the recent national reports on the state of U.S. education. The taxpayers want to know if their local systems are "at risk" or if these systems are producing graduates who are academically equipped for the future. Such demands and expectations are generating substantial accountability efforts in the careful evaluation of programs, personnel, and resources.

Test results have always been the most highly used evidence of a school's or educational program's success or failure. This is still the case, but the nature of the tests included in such evaluations has gone through several changes. The majority of states now have some form of accountability legislation. This legislation typically includes some student testing as one of the vehicles for assessment. These tests may be called exit exams, basic skills tests, or minimum competency tests. Regardless of their format, the tests often determine the fates of individual students, teachers, schools, or school systems. The tests are frequently used for comparative purposes and become political tools affecting the support and funding of educational programs.

Given the significance of testing programs, particularly those that fall in the category of minimum competency testing, it is crucial that the design, implementation, and interpretation of such tests be given the full attention of the schools using them. Several states that designed their own tests have since found that their tests revealed an unnoticed bias or that the prescribed passing scores were unrealistic. These problems have resulted in court cases, delays in funding, and greater dissatisfaction with public education on the part of the public. In the past, similar problems had emerged when local school systems had undertaken the task of designing their own minimum competency tests. The local systems were not sufficiently staffed to assume the massive task of designing and validating their own tests under the short time-lines presented by many school boards. In systems' efforts to design what would be perceived by teachers as a fair test, tests were often developed that resulted in high scores, according to the public's assessment, and this led to criticisms that the tests were too easy.

For those states or school systems who chose not to develop their own tests but rather to adopt a commercially prepared test, the test selection process proved to be more complex than anticipated. The central issue in test selection is relevance of the test to what is taught—the curriculum. Consequently, a thorough and comprehensive analysis of the curriculum has become a prerequisite step to careful test selection. Such analysis of the curriculum permits a careful analysis of test content with respect to the curriculum content to assure consistency between their objectives or intended outcomes. With the extreme significance placed on test results, school systems or state departments of education have often developed a process for test selection. Beyond the content analysis, they investigate factors such as the quality of the items, the format of the test, the procedures for test administration, and the report options available. It has been found that the application of a systematic process for test selection reduces skepticism surrounding test results and minimizes the need for constant redesign or for program and school evaluations.

Successful testing programs include teacher input in the identification of minimum standards or passing scores. Many systems have found that the greatest success is achieved when testing committees or task forces are formed with members from the community, from the administration, and from the teacher and student population. The systems also recognize the importance of inservice programs to keep teachers informed about the testing program and of the development of a system to address the remediation needs of students when test results are available.

With regards to the interpretation and use of test results, the professional literature indicates many concerns on behalf of both teachers and administrators. Systems are advised to have alternative means other than tests for measuring individual student performance before withholding diplomas or denying promotion. It is also recommended that test results be analyzed in a comprehensive manner by persons trained in such areas and be reported in a variety of fashions to ensure that various audiences have similar interpretations of test results. This recommendation is typically aligned with staff development activities related to test interpretation and to the overall purpose of testing programs. Testing programs are developed as a tool for assessing program and student progress. The real value of a testing program rests on how the results revealed by the tests are used to improve the school system in which the program is implemented.

Aside from the greater emphasis on testing programs that has emerged during the last two decades, there has also developed a more concerted effort toward individual program evaluations. Accompanying this effort is the establishment of national standards for program evaluations, developed cooperatively by several professional educational associations. Program evaluations now go far beyond the simple pretest, posttest design. Evaluators are encouraged to document the degree and nature of program implementation, as well as to investigate indicators of program success such as teacher or student motivation or attitude changes. It has been realized that test scores alone are not adequate measures of program effectiveness. Scores can be raised while negative attitudes can be developed that have far-reaching effects. Also, low test scores can result in development of a special program that fails because the program was not fully or properly implemented. Administrators are finding that they need to have more personal contact with evaluators in order to better understand both the processes and the results of evaluations in their system. It has also been reported that evaluations have a greater effect if they include active teacher participation. This participation can include tasks such as clarification of goals, development of evaluation design or measurement strategies, analysis of data, and preparation of final evaluation reports. Some school systems have also found that the inclusion of student interviews in their evaluation designs has proven helpful in their curriculum decision-making.

As indicated previously, evaluation is no longer limited to student test results. The teacher evaluation process has expanded to include systematic observations within a typical framework of preconference, postconference, and plans for remediation. Many school systems have broadened their evaluations of their inservice programs beyond a simple questionnaire administered at the close of a session or of an inservice day. They are now including follow-up assessments to see if the information on skills presented in inservice is actually implemented and useful in the classroom. As far as the workshop evaluation forms, they now include factors such as stimulation of new interests or development of a sense of community spirit or commitment. Schools are looking for better results from their inservice time, money, and effort and are seeking objective assessment of the results.

Other extensions of evaluation efforts include reviews of administrators, school boards, and overall school effectiveness. Administrative evaluations, as reported previously in this text, are becoming more comprehensive and are assuming a formative role as well as the traditional summative role. Aside from the results of reelection efforts, many school boards and board members are now being systematically evaluated through self-evaluation scales. They assess their completion of goals for the year or their reactions to crises that emerged during the year. The results of these evaluations are sometimes reported for individual members and for the board as a whole in order to give community members a better basis for judgment of board accomplishments.

School effectiveness appears to be an emerging national concern. Many individual states have adopted excellence-in-education programs consistent with the guidelines of a national program to recognize individual school accomplishments. The major contribution of these efforts to the field of evaluation is their recognition of issues beyond test results. These issues include factors such as the leadership provided by administrators, school climate, parent involvement, and discipline policies.

Evaluation and accountability are indeed on the minds of most educators and of the public as a whole. However, the emphasis has changed from the 1960's and 1970's desire for simply more evaluation to the 1980's and 1990's interest in more comprehensive and systematic evaluation. The intent is not to collect more information to denigrate education and educational programs but is rather to gather information to recognize good programs so that they can be replicated elsewhere and to identify program weaknesses so that they can be properly resolved.

Representative Synopses

INTERPRETING TEST RESULTS: THE MISSING KEY IN MOST TESTING PROGRAMS

Barnes, Ronald E., Karen Moriarity, and John Murphy. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 66, November 1982, pp. 14-20.

Barnes, Moriarity, and Murphy, administrative personnel at Consolidated High School District 230 near Chicago, Illinois, identify the reporting of test results as an area of significance in most school systems. The authors initially delineate a number of reasons to support their contention, such as the impact of the results on all students and programs and the inadequate nature of much of the information that is generally disseminated with test results.

As an example, the authors summarize their school system's approach to standardized testing. Their districtwide testing program was adopted in 1980 to provide information related to five basic purposes: current achievement for freshmen and sophomores across basic academic areas; curriculum planning, development, and evaluation; student placement decisions; districtwide goal setting; and individual student vocational interest patterns.

The authors assert that the reporting of test results is the key to an effective testing program. Consequently, the school system's emphasis was on the development of a comprehensive plan for distributing test results in their system. They determined that two issues that enter into every test result dissemination are the groups to receive the results and the type of information appropriate for each group. They noted that the experience, expertise, and interests of groups vary greatly and therefore warrant different report formats and explanations. The groups identified by District 230 included the board of education, the central administration, the building administration, the students, the parents, the teaching staff, the counselors, the feeder elementary schools, and the press. A brief description of the nature of the report distributed to each identified group was provided.

Barnes, Moriarity, and Murphy conclude that the reporting of testing results without direct connections to specific test program purposes is likely to threaten a system's growth and development. They encourage the development of a comprehensive plan for reporting results in order to assure a more accurate interpretation of the results and to provide the system with an opportunity to present solutions or plans for addressing program concerns before they become an issue.

TEACHER EVALUATION—WHO NEEDS IT?

Christensen, Edith E. *Roeper Review*, Volume 9, September 1986, pp. 19-23.

Christensen describes a system of teacher evaluation developed for gifted children at Evergreen School in Seattle, Washington.

The evaluation process includes three phases: self-study, peer observation and team critique, and administrator observation. The self-study includes an analysis of teaching styles and a written report of the self-study to the school's administrator. In accordance with a set of guidelines and questions requiring examples, the teacher analyzes goals for appropriateness in relation to student abilities and needs by considering lesson plans, class activities, and other instructional concerns. The goals and objectives are documented and strengths and weaknesses are recorded so that they may be discussed with the administrator. In addition, the teacher provides sample lesson plans, records how teaching behavior affects the behavior of students, and evaluates whether or not the behavior modeled is that which students should be following.

In the peer observation, each teacher observes the professional performance of another teacher. The strategy is to observe the verbal and nonverbal behavior and the cognitive and affective behavior of the teacher and students. Peer evaluators also observe other events occurring in the class, including activities, lesson plans, presentations, and teacher interaction with students, parents, and administrators. Upon completion of these activities, a written observation is given to the school administrator.

The administrator's observation includes exploratory observation, which involves scanning various aspects of the classroom prior to the appointed observations in order to acquire an overview of interpersonal relationships in the classroom, of student and teacher interaction, and of the teachers' general teaching styles. Observations may be of specific classes at the teacher's request or of any of the various classes that he or she teaches. The administrator gathers raw data in order to analyze class behavior. This behavior includes the number and kind of teacher questions and student responses, the types and frequency of response, the reward or punishment, and the verbal and nonverbal messages. Following the observation, the administrator writes a detailed report of events occurring in the classroom, including behavioral observations; strengths and weaknesses; and teacher strategies, methods, plans, and interactions with students and others on the staff. Summaries of all observations and critiques are compiled and used in the teacher/administrator conference to assess the congruences between the classroom instruction and objectives and the achievement of those objectives. Also, reports prepared by the different observers are compared to determine patterns of behavior that may be used to eliminate or modify behavior.

In conclusion, Christensen notes that the Evergreen evaluation process allows teachers to participate in their own growth for individual differences and also allows the administrator to promote faculty development. She notes that the evaluation process is nonthreatening because it involves the teacher in all steps and provides for cooperation among the staff members in the evaluation process in order to help them grow with greater understanding of each other and of their individual styles.

USING FORMATIVE TESTING AT THE CLASSROOM, SCHOOL, AND DISTRICT LEVELS

Conner, Katherine, Jerald Hairston, Inex Hill, Henry Kopple, John Marshall, Karen Scholnick, and Marcia Schulman. *Educational Leadership,* Volume 43, October 1985, pp. 63-67.

The authors describe a formative testing program in Philadelphia conducted through the Affective Education Program, Office of Instructional Projects, Curriculum and Instruction Development. During the past eight years, the formative process has been used as part of the mastery learning and school improvement program, with the most extensive use being made in K-8 mathematics through the Office of Mathematics Education. The program is being implemented in 15 elementary schools.

Much success has been found at the classroom level, with the unit failure rate being reduced to 10 percent. Mastery tests are given before teaching. Next, the material is presented to the students. Then the first formative test is given. During the next class session, students find out what they have mastered as well as what they still need to work on. The students who have mastered the material may do enrichment work, or they may be peer tutors. The students who did not master the material work with the teacher. Finally, a second test is given. This process generally takes 5 to 12 class periods.

There are four essential features to formative testing at the classroom, school, and district levels. These include (1) stating the belief system, (2) setting goals and measuring, (3) collecting data, and (4) acting on test information.

PARTICIPATION IN EVALUATION AS STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Crosby, Jeanie. *The Journal of Staff Development,* Volume 3, April 1982, pp. 147-155.

Crosby describes an example of staff development activity designed by the Maine Mastery Learning Consortium, a program involving 16 school districts. Participation in this program assisted in refining evaluative strategies and in a better understanding of the program.

Crosby identifies six areas of evaluation that are amenable to participation. The first area involves participation in clarifying program goals and indicators of program success. The next two areas include the development of the design for the evaluation and the development of the various methods of measurement. The fourth area, and the most typical type of involvement, is participation as a respondent to interviews and other evaluation instruments. The final two areas suggest involvement in analyzing data and in reporting the results of the evaluation.

By presenting details regarding the implementation of this proposal in the Maine Mastery Learning Consortium, Crosby offers some concrete examples of the potential levels of participation at each phase of the evaluation. In her summary, she also recognizes that some evaluators would question the objectivity of evaluations involving such intense interaction with program participants. However, this potential drawback is overridden by the many gains from such participation. She notes a greater knowledge regarding the strengths and weaknesses of programs and a better understanding of staff development needs after staff members participated in both the implementation and the evaluation of a program.

MATCHING EVALUATIONS TO THE TYPE OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY AT THE BUILDING LEVEL

Ellis, Susan S. *The Journal of Staff Development,* Volume 3, April 1982, pp. 48-55.

Ellis describes the process involved in developing a system-wide evaluation model for all staff development activities in Greenwich, Connecticut. Evaluation accounts for one-third of the responsibilities assigned to school Staff Development Associates on the central Staff Development Advisory Committee for the school system. The other two aspects are the planning of building-level staff development and the planning of appropriate follow-up activities for each developmental effort.

The process presented was actually the result of a training session conducted for the Staff Development Associates. Previous evaluations of staff development at Greenwich had utilized a typical evaluation form that included some issues as relevant to the participants' expectations and to the usefulness of the content. The form also asked participants to write a few personal reactions to the activity and to rate the activity from "excellent" to "poor" on a four-point scale. Training session participants decided that this form was inadequate for building sessions because it did not address enough details related to what had been learned, what were the best activities within a session, and what follow-up might be needed.

The new process involved an evaluation of four aspects of staff development: (1) the acquisition of new information, (2) the generation of interest and concern regarding a topic, (3) the acquisition of new skills or strategies, and (4) the development of a sense of community and commitment among staff members. The Greenwich staff decided to assess the first concern, information-gathering, by using a pretest and post-test design. This design included checklists, multiple-choice responses, or short-answer instruments in an anonymous response format in order to eliminate individual anxiety and to concentrate on building-level changes. Interest or concern in a topic was evaluated by a brief questionnaire asking what related practices each teacher had tried since the workshop was conducted. Evaluation of new skills or strategies acquired as a result of attendance at a session was assessed through a self-report checklist in which teachers identified their need for more information or their readiness to try the skills, with or without support. Finally, an assessment of the commitment or community spirit was determined to necessitate an informal approach. The participants in the training session decided consciously to observe things such as teacher willingness to assist in the various peripheral aspects of sessions and teacher discussions of the sessions at later dates in the lounge.

Ellis did not report that the one training session resulted in a final product for the evaluation system. She did, however, suggest that the process would be implemented within the Greenwich staff members' own training as a means of deciding what to do at their next session.

EVALUATING TEACHERS—ONE PRINCIPAL'S WAY

Fischer, Nicholas A. *Principal*, Volume 61, May 1982, pp. 37-39.

Fischer describes an approach to evaluating teachers which he used while a principal at elementary schools in Key West and Key Largo, Florida. This approach emphasized both collaborative and formative evaluation: collaborative in that he and the teacher worked with each other to make the evaluation useful to the teacher; formative in that the evaluation sought to arrive at alternative avenues to professional improvement.

Fischer states that the key to his evaluation process was in making expectations clear. He sought to meet this requirement by issuing a written description of the evaluation process to each teacher at the start of the school year. Fischer notified the teacher of an upcoming classroom observation a month in advance. The day before the observation, the teacher could meet with Fischer if the teacher desired such a conference.

The observation took place over a two- to three-day period, in segments of 20 minutes to an hour, with a total of approximately 1½ hours of observation each day. Fischer sought to give the teacher immediate feedback by holding a conference after class on the day of an observation. Prior to the conference, preparation was made for procedures to follow in working with the teacher. The first conference usually included a review of the day by the teacher and observations made by Fischer. This included an overview, specific strengths, and areas where improvement was needed. The second day's conference usually gave attention to larger issues, such as meeting of district requirements and accountability for teaching skills. In the third conference, Fischer reviewed his observations and focused on the future. Attention was given to developing an agenda for improvement of professional performance for the remainder of the year.

This process was followed by a letter to the teacher, aimed at personalizing the process, touching on issues reviewed at the conferences, responding to teacher concerns, and sometimes suggesting or reinforcing improvement alternatives.

Fischer admits that his process of teacher evaluation takes time and that in larger schools using the process, it would be necessary to train and delegate authority to other evaluators. He concludes that showing concern for each teacher's professional growth is of tremendous value in building credibility as an administrator and that the benefits of such a process outweigh the necessary sacrifices.

SHARPEN YOUR PENCILS: HERE'S AN EFFECTIVE WAY TO EVALUATE YOUR SCHOOL BOARD

Heck, Glen. *The American School Board Journal,* Volume 169, November 1982, pp. 39-40.

Heck, chairman of the Houston County (Georgia) Board of Education and past president of the Georgia School Boards Association, presents a self-evaluation checklist for assessing a school board's effectiveness. This checklist is an outgrowth of the recognized need for school boards to regularly reconsider their goals, measure their successes, and project potential problems.

Heck acknowledges that his checklist includes information gathered from the National School Boards Association and other such sources. The categories and statements presented in his model are identical to those currently utilized by Houston County. The only variation in the two is that the board's form permits up to five response categories to each statement, while Heck's form contains only two options—"Adequate" and "Needs Improvement."

The checklist designed by Heck presents a school board's responsibilities in 11 categories. The categories are goal setting, policy, finance, relationship with superintendent, community relations, board meetings, staff and personnel relationships, instructional program, leadership, energy conservation, and personal development. Each phrase listed in the checklist is presented as an ending to the sentence beginning, "I believe this school board." Some sampie statements are "Knows its limitations," "Provides ample time for the superintendent to plan," and "Has clearly defined administrative competency standards."

In Houston County, each board member completes the evaluation form on an annual basis. Then, the board as a whole discusses members' individual evaluations. Heck encourages other school boards to adopt some similar procedure for their own evaluations.

HOW PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS VIEW PROGRAM EVALUATION

King, Jean A., and Bruce Thompson. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 67, January 1983, pp. 46-51.

King and Thompson developed a questionnaire to determine how superintendents and principals view the value of program evaluation. For the purpose of this survey, program evaluation was defined as "the process of providing information about programs to administrators or school boards to help them make decisions regarding the programs."

The questionnaires were mailed to a random sample of roughly 1,600 public school district personnel. Two independent variables—district size and school position in the district—were used. The dependent variables focused on two general areas of concern: the users' perceptions of program evaluation and their perceptions of their interactions with evaluators. Questionnaires were returned by 403 principals and by 283 superintendents.

Sixty-one percent of the respondents said they found evaluations of educational programs in their schools either useful or very useful; only 14 percent reported that evaluations were minimally useful. Regardless of the district size, most respondents said they *did* use the information received from program evaluations in their decision making. However, only 28 percent of the respondents reported that the programs they care most about could be directly measured. Few administrators reported speaking frequently with program evaluators about the programs they were studying.

This last stated finding brought the suggestion that evaluators should actively disseminate evaluation information, working with administrators, teachers, and parents to ensure that it is properly understood. Suggested ways to present this information included informal contacts, news releases, and multimedia presentations.

King and Thompson recommend that administrators become interested and active in program evaluation in order to improve the use of evaluation information. The importance of personal contact with evaluators cannot be overestimated. The authors stress the need and importance of collaborative evaluation between the administrators and the evaluators.

A PRACTICAL APPROACH TO SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Landon, Glenda L., and William R. Shirer. *Educational Leadership*, Volume 44, September 1986, pp. 73-75.

Landon and Shirer describe the Wisconsin School Evaluation Consortium (SEC). This voluntary program, which began in 1979, exists for school improvement and for diagnostic program evaluation. It is an outreach program of the University of Wisconsin-Madison School of Education and receives 80 percent of its funding through the school districts that it serves. There are almost 1,100 public and nonpublic elementary, middle, and high schools involved.

Each school district may alter the basic approach; however, some generalizations do exist. For instance, the planning of projects must include teachers, building- and system-level administrators, and school board members. The plan has to be approved by the complete school board as well as by the SEC Board of Control. Also, top priority items deal with curriculum articulation issues. Additionally, school districts usually decide to assess their programs K-12. They want to find out what happens to their students as they move through the grade levels. Moreover, the majority of school districts assess a few programs during the year, rather than all of the programs during a given year. Most districts use their SEC evaluation to meet the requirements of a mandated evaluation, such as one by the North Central Association Accrediting Agency. Moreover, most districts prefer to have their self-evaluation reports audited by a team chosen by the SEC office.

The success of the SEC is best noted by the continuous renewal of one-year agreements by the systems and by the growth in membership from the original 22 K-12 districts and 45 individual high schools in 1979. Also, both the university and the school districts are enjoying the direct, continuing relationships between the institutions.

SELECTING YOUR DISTRICT'S ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Nielsen, Loretta A., John A. Hilderbrand, and Susan D. Turner. *Educational Leadership,* Volume 39, April 1982, p. 139.

Hillsborough County, a large school district in Florida, decided that because the prime use of test results was the improvement of instruction, the district would concentrate its system efforts on finding a test that matched most closely the district's curriculum. Nielsen, Hilderbrand, and Turner present a summary of the activities surrounding the test selection process.

The six largest test publication companies were invited to present their tests to a committee comprised of instructional supervisors; principals; counselors; specialists; and teachers of math, English, and social studies. The committee developed a review form for rating each test in five areas: content, quality of items, format, administration, and reports. In the content area, the committee reviewed each test to see how closely it matched the district's curriculum and the state minimum standards. In quality of items, they judged the appropriateness of the test in assessing the students for whom it was intended. Under the format selection, the committee considered print size, use of illustrations, clarity of directions, and sample items. In the area of administration, they looked for such things as time allotment and directions for test administrators. In the report area, the committee evaluated the quality of completeness, the curriculum decisions to be made on the basis of each test, and the ease of interpreting test data.

The committee met six times, reviewing, discussing, and evaluating a different test each time. At the final meeting, each member rated each test according to preference. Based on these preferences, a recommendation was made to the Superintendent for Instruction, who brought it to the school board for final approval.

In the spring of 1983, the Hillsborough County school district implemented a testing program designed to match the county's curriculum and to yield data that would enable those responsible to make sound educational decisions.

WHY TEACHERS FLUNK: EVALUATION AND PROBATION OF TEACHERS, COUNSELORS, AND PRINCIPALS IN WASHINGTON STATE

Shreeve, William, Muriel Badebaugh, Janet R. Norby, Arnold F. Stueckle, William G. J. Goetter, Charlotte Zyskowski, Barbara de Michele, and Thomas K. Midgley. *The Clearing House*, Volume 59, January 1986, pp. 207-210.

Shreeve and associates report on a survey initiated by Eastern Washington University in 1983 and sent to 284 local school districts, with 160 districts responding. The three purposes of the survey were (1) to examine the practical implementation of state evaluative and probationary measures, (2) to determine implications for future teacher education programs, and (3) to determine the relevancy and applicability of Washington State evaluative criteria and probationary procedures.

Among many survey findings, this study showed that lack of classroom management skills, instructional ability, and disciplinary skills accounted for the vast majority of teacher and counselor probationary cases in the state. Of the 26 principals on probation in the districts surveyed, all were judged to lack leadership abilities. Principals placed on probation also lacked management/administrative skills and seemed unable to recognize or properly evaluate skills of teachers and counselors. An interesting finding was that for all three groups, a lack of academic and professional preparation accounted for the lowest percentage of probationary cases. The responding 160 superintendents indicated that classroom performance was their area of greatest concern. Interpersonal skills, communication, and simple enthusiasm also received significant attention from the respondents.

Classroom management, instructional skill, and discipline problems accounted for most of the teachers who were placed on probation. The largest number of probated teachers were placed on probation during their second year of teaching, although one-third of the reported probations occurred after the tenth year of teaching. Each probated teacher received a minimum of six observations over a three-month period.

Shreeve and associates conclude that stronger administration and teacher education programs should decrease the number of probations for all three groups. A careful examination of the effects of extended practicums on administrative and teaching performance should be conducted. Finally, the researchers recommend that schools of education should continue to explore better ways to identify and eliminate deficient administrative and teaching candidates from the profession.

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TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS

Technology is a glamorous aspect of our society that is alluring to adults as well as to children. The major contributor to this allurement is the microcomputer revolution, which has developed within the last decade. Involved is an economy facing problems caused by the transition between the industrial and information societies. Computer technology is fast moving from industry, commerce, and science into the classroom, causing much controversy about the proper role of the computer in education.

Educators must face up to the possibilities of technological developments in teaching. Commercial, home, and student pressures are building up. In fact, computer literacy is becoming a family affair and has strong public appeal. The business and industry sectors of our society have recognized technology as a key to productivity through augmentation of human effort. Education is challenged to do likewise. This recognition does not necessitate the replacement of teachers; when used appropriately, technology can make teachers more productive. The key is the education and re-education of teachers in the use of appropriate media for instruction. Much responsibility lies with educational leaders and their ability to involve labor and capital in providing appropriate technological tools for schools.

The microcomputer, a compact, self-contained unit resembling a typewriter keyboard wired to a TV set, is being marketed as a personal computer for home and school. Children already accustomed to having their own pocket calculators are fast being exposed to these home computers. They are often better informed and adapted to these instruments than teachers are. The small computer, proposed in pocket size, with suitable educational software, holds a powerful promise for individualized learning.

Students are not only fascinated by the gadgets but seem motivated to learn when they have control of the situation. This motivation is even greater as students move from simple game activities to problem-solving encounters. The computer appears to provide a safe learning environment where the shy student is not inhibited by the responses of other students, allowing him or her to react and to ask questions freely. In this setting, corrections appear to be taken impersonally. As a result, individualized patterns of student performance and errors are diagnosed, and instruction is adjusted accordingly.

The possibilities for change and advancement in teaching techniques through computers are numerous. The flexibility and range of tasks that computers can perform are infinite. Computers are capable of identifying and "understanding" a wide range of common words and phrases and then providing appropriate responses. Computers are replacing the card catalog and the folder files and are saving valuable time in record keeping for the media center, the teacher, and the administrator. Computer experiences begin with the preschool child. The elementary-age child learns spelling and vocabulary by manipulating colorful cartoon characters. Workbook type drills are provided in spelling, vocabulary, mathematics, and reading. Simulation through the computer provides vicarious experiences of a laboratory type. Word processors accommodate correction of mistakes and reorganization in English and foreign language classes. Secondary students learn more than one computer language.

With the development of chips containing extensive kilobytes of information, complete dictionaries in several different languages in calculator-size units are in process. Pocket computer translators and vocabulary builders are being provided for businesspeople, students, and teachers at a cost little more than the price of the raw materials used in production.

The promise in technological innovation lies in the potential for improving teacher productivity through individualized instruction. Educators are recognizing that the ability to maintain their standard of production in keeping with rising costs is closely related to use of technology. The major need is for appropriate software understood by classroom teachers, with time provided for software preparation and use. It is unrealistic to expect individual teachers to produce such materials while carrying on their regular duties. It is only when teachers are released from their teaching schedules and provided resources and training in special skills that they are able to tackle this problem. Even the selection of basic software requires more time and energy than teachers can give under their present schedules.

Some of the problems of teaching through computers are being solved as commercial organizations cooperate with educators in providing money for investigating the nature of the teaching process and for developing appropriate computer program materials. Efforts are being made to motivate the teacher through actual input and involvement in the production, testing, and use of software. Faced with the shift in the kind and amount of labor needed in the world market, the public is beginning to realize that this is not solely an educational problem. It encompasses the view that labor is a resource rather than an economic cost. Thus, investment in human capital is a necessity for the economic development and maintenance of our society. This position imposes responsibility on educators for producing graduates who are knowledgeable and who have skills and attitudes for continuous learning.

When it is realized that schools are already burdened with multiple expectations from the public, the concept that education is a resource rather than a cost is paramount. Increasingly, our economic and social system is dependent on a high level of technology, which can be provided through our educational system, in cooperation with and supported by industry. These technological developments are not only forcing change in the world economy but are requiring the rethinking of the goals, procedures, and finance of systems. As *Sputnik* ushered in an emphasis on mathematics and science in the 1960's with unprecedented federal funds for curriculum development, so the technological communication revolution bids to have a significant impact on education. Our political, financial, and educational leaders are challenged to provide adequately and appropriately for the preparation, compensation, facilities, support services, and recognition of teachers as they cope with these new demands and opportunities.

Technological education offers positive approaches to viable educational fundamentals in today's curriculum. Such a curriculum provides for the communication skills of sorting, processing, analyzing, conceptualizing, and synthesizing necessary in our high-technological communication society. As the graduates of our schools learn to use and apply the knowledge they have gained toward complex critical thinking and analysis of changing information, they are able to cope with the continuously changing social, economic, political, and psychological problems encountered.

Everywhere we see industry capitalizing on technological advances while educators see their budgets decline. Educators do well to get technological aids here and there, when in fact a total analysis and redirection of the current system is long overdue. Schools need resources to study, plan for, and implement programs, procedures, and technological developments in keeping with the needs of the youth of today—the citizens of tomorrow. The challenge is to place emphasis on the development of the minds of youth, recognizing schooling as a means of educating them and technology as a tool in the hands of educators in order to accomplish this most important responsibility of society.

Representative Synopses

THE COMPUTERIZATION OF ROGERS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Closen, John P. *Principal,* Volume 67, September 1987, pp. 52-53.

The author describes how he was able to help his faculty members use computers to further the school's curriculum at Rogers Elementary School. The school is located in North Pekin, Illinois, and in 1985 had 212 students in grades K-5, 11 full-time teachers, and 4 part-time teachers.

Closen first helped his teachers understand what a computer can do. He used the speech synthesizer to give the Pledge of Allegiance over the intercom a few times each week. Also, Closen used the computer to keep student personnel information on a current basis. Teachers were given printouts to support their regular classroom record keeping. He also maintained a substantial file of form letters on disks to expedite such communications.

Moreover, the author developed a computer-assisted instruction (CAI) program, making all the teachers in the school aware of the various types of software available to them. He also assisted in the establishment of a graduate level course on computer use in the classroom for teachers throughout the school system, paid for by the school system and conducted by a nearby university.

By the end of Closen's first year, 70 percent of the faculty and staff were becoming competent in the use of computers. The number of computers available to the staff has been substantially increased, and particular efforts have been made to enhance the writing curriculum through the use of the IBM "Writing-To-Read" program, the "Bank Street Writer" program, and a touch-typing program called "Paws." A remedial/enrichment program entitled "MICROS" is being offered by the school aide before and after school. The special education teachers have used the computers to facilitate IEP development and teacher-to-parent communications. As Closen sees it, the computerization of Rogers Elementary is almost complete.

AN ANALYSIS OF WHY STUDENTS SELECT INTRODUCTORY HIGH SCHOOL COMPUTER COURSEWORK

Cole, Dennis D., and Michael J. Hannafin. *Educational Technology*, Volume 23, April 1983, pp. 26-29.

Cole and Hannafin describe the process, report findings, and suggest implications of a study to identify factors that influence participation in high school introductory computer courses. Students selected from three middle class suburban high schools, grades 10-12, were the subjects for an attitude and perception survey. About half were enrolled in introductory computer classes, and the others had no computer experiences.

According to the authors, the survey was designed to determine the degree of importance students placed on math and science in learning computer skills and on their concept of their own abilities in math and science for learning computer skills. Students were also asked to respond to the possibility of needing computer skills in their career plans and to indicate the attitudes of their parents toward computers. Data were analyzed with regard to sex and computer experience of the participants.

Analysis of data presented by Cole and Hannafin indicated that students having no experience with computers perceived the need for science knowledge to be significantly higher than students with computer experience. Females perceived their own mathematics competency to learn computer skills to be significantly lower than that of males. There was no difference in the perceptions of usefulness of computers in careers and the attitudes of parents toward computers as seen by those with computer experience and those without experience.

Findings from the study indicate that computers may be more for the academically able. Without benefit of first-hand experience, students may overrate the prerequisite of mathematics and science for attaining computer literacy. Regardless of the complexity of computer studies, students enter the program based largely on their perceptions of the course and on their concept of themselves as being able to cope with computers. Cole and Hannafin state that clarification of expectations may result in more students participating in introductory computer coursework.

THE STATE OF EDUCATIONAL SOFTWARE: A CRITERIA-BASED EVALUATION

Dudley-Marling, Curt, and Ronald D. Owston. *Educational Technology,* Volume 27, March 1987, pp. 25-29.

Dudley-Marling and Owston report on the York Educational Software Evaluation Scales (YESES), a criterion-based alternative to more subjective software evaluation schemes. This software evaluation project was conducted by the Faculty of Education at York University in Ontario, Canada. The York Educational Software Evaluation Scales examine educational software along four dimensions: (1) pedagogical content, which refers to the knowledge and skills the software purports to teach; (2) instructional presentation, which addresses how well the software takes advantage of the unique capabilities of the microcomputer; (3) documentation, which includes information and supporting materials on how to use the software, from both a technical and pedagogical point of view; and (4) technical adequacy, which refers to the design of the software with respect to user inputs, software outputs, and system errors. For each dimension, there is a four-point, criterion-based scale, from "exemplary" to "deficient."

The findings revealed a relatively high proportion of software to be judged deficient, especially in the two dimensions of pedagogical content and instructional presentation, where 28 percent for each category was judged deficient. A small percentage of the software was found to be exemplary. This finding supported earlier assessments made in this decade about the low state of educational software. However, the authors point out that there are a significant number of available software programs that display desirable characteristics. The indication is that educators must be cautious in their software purchasing decisions.

The authors inferred from the ratings that a substantial number of available software programs do not adequately take advantage of the unique capabilities of the microcomputer, do not include adequate documentation, and do not display good technical qualities. However, the authors conclude that the results of formal software evaluations must be viewed with some caution because in the final analysis, the efficiency of a piece of educational software must be judged according to the responses of students to that program and not by the predictions of adults. A key point is that teachers should depend upon their own observations of their students as the students interact with the software. As they note these observations, teachers can incorporate their own planning into the best use of software in their individual situations.

COMPUTER LITERACY IS A FAMILY AFFAIR

Gennaro, Eugene D., Kent Kehrberg, and Patricia Heller. *Instructional Innovator*, Volume 28, January 1983, pp. 17-18.

Gennaro, Kehrberg, and Heller describe a course on computer literacy for parents and middle-school-age children taught simultaneously through a community education program at Mounds View and in a Minneapolis classroom. The programs, supported by funds from the National Science Foundation, sought to promote positive attitudes toward computer usage and to strengthen family relationships while increasing computer literacy.

Classes involving 9 to 12 families each were involved in five sessions of three hours each on Saturday mornings. A microcomputer with a large screen was used for demonstrations and discussions. One microcomputer was available for each family group up to three. Content of the sessions included activities to remove anxiety and to provide hands-on introduction to the machine. This entailed computer programming, computer vocabulary and types of machines, computer simulation with program design and minor problem solving, construction and animation of objects on the screen, and knowledge of ways computers are serving individuals and society.

The authors give evidence to show that the family approach to teaching computer literacy was successful. The give and take of parents and children working together, and the expressions of surprise in the realization of the capabilities and common interests noted by both parents and children, were considered very rewarding. Each seemed to motivate and challenge the other in work behavior and in gaining knowledge about and skill in use of the computer. Participants indicated that the course was a success by rating it an average of 4.5 on a scale of 5. Marked gains were shown in computer literacy by parents and children through pre- and post-tests.

This type of computer instruction is considered possible and is recommended, according to Gennaro, Kehrberg, and Heller, for any school willing to use the resources of the local school and the services that may be gained through microcomputer dealers. As noted by parents and children in this program, the experience of working and learning together is meritorious.

PROFILE OF CHANGE IN EDUCATION: MICROS GAIN MOMENTUM

Grossnickle, Donald R., and Bruce A. Laird. *Educational Technology*, Volume 23, February 1983, pp. 13-16.

Grossnickle and Laird report recent changes in adoption of policy and in implementation of microcomputer technology at the Palatine (Illinois) high school. This, the third in a series of articles beginning with December 1981, reports an evolutionary "from the ground up" process of computer implementation and use. It is considered by the authors as representative of what is taking place in public high schools of the United States.

The report shows positive action of the board of education toward computer education by a gradual but consistent increase in purchase of microcomputers and by the mandating of microcomputer literacy training for students, faculty, and administrators. Substantially increased enrollment in microcomputer courses by teachers and students toward the end of 1981-1982 provided the basis for the board of education policy adoption and increased facilities at Palatine High School and at each of the five district high schools.

According to Grossnickle and Laird, the greatest expansion has been in the departments of science, mathematics, and business education. They express concern that the potential is not used in areas such as English, foreign languages, and home economics. They report, however, that each high school has appointed a "building computer coordinator," with specific duties to facilitate the use of computers by teachers.

Mandated microcomputer training by the board of education provides for student awareness training, literacy training, and proficiency training in three well-identified and appropriately structured courses. Staff training is provided through Phase I, aimed at familiarization with computers and their resources. Phase II is concerned with the development of staff ability to successfully program microcomputers.

The authors note that the greatest use of computers continues to be in teaching students about computers, even though a large number of faculty members have not brought computers into their classrooms. Through its commitment to computer education, the board of education is slowly but surely seeing the demand for computer-related courses increase and teacher preparation improve.

ESTABLISHING A DISTRICTWIDE COMPUTER CURRICULUM

Guse, George Ann M. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 70, April 1986, pp. 6-9.

Guse describes a K-12 computer education program designed and implemented by the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, school district, without vast expenditures of funds. The three levels of the Broken Arrow program include (1) computer awareness: grades 1-5, (2) computer literacy: grades 6-8, and (3) computer programming: grades 9-12. All students in the Broken Arrow system are exposed to the first two levels of the computer curriculum as part of their regular classroom work, while computer programming is offered as an elective. The three levels provide hands-on experiences, including drill, tutorial, simulations, word processing, problem solving, and computer-assisted learning in math and reading for students achieving below grade level.

Economy was a key factor in planning the program. Since the computer curriculum does not involve the use of software, disk systems are not needed for the computer labs at the elementary and middle schools. These labs are cassette-based, requiring a minimum amount of equipment. Computers are integrated into the secondary curriculum through computer programming and through the business department's emphasis on business application, business machines, and accounting. At the middle school level, the emphasis has been on the operation of the microcomputer and its peripherals; the use of color, sound, and graphics; and understanding. The BASIC program is started in middle school and continues into secondary computer classes. Programming in Pascal is also an option for secondary mathematics/science students who successfully complete the BASIC coursework.

Guse concludes that a comprehensive computer curriculum is possible on a shoestring budget. She notes that expenditures of less than $100,000 during the past five years have allowed the Broken Arrow school district to equip each of the 16 schools with a lab or six microcomputers, with two additional labs at the senior high school. Careful planning and an eye for economy facilitate the computer curriculum of this small school district.

SMILE, YOU'RE ON VIDEO

Kirby, Timothy F. *Principal,* Volume 67, November 1987, pp. 14-16.

Kirby, who is the principal of Scenic Hills Elementary School in Springfield, Pennsylvania, describes how the school uses video technology to enhance the instructional, curricular, and parental aspects of the program there.

The school uses video technology in a number of ways. Some of the ways are listed below:

1. "*KIDS NEWS*" is a television program done two times a week by fourth graders. The show is seen in all class-

rooms and also in the community through the local cable channel.

2. Teachers have produced over 50 taped programs on holidays and special occasions for use by their colleagues.
3. "Take home" tapes are developed to enhance communication with parents. These tapes include things such as a tour of the school, a summary presentation of all curricular and co-curricular programs at the school, a description of their Home and School Volunteer Program, and some suggestions for activities that can be done at home to enhance a child's interest in various subjects.

The teachers have used video technology in all areas of the curriculum. All of the teachers have used video to some extent. Kirby reports that approximately one-third of the teachers use it on a regular basis.

TEACHER TRAINING IN EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY: WHAT STUDENT TEACHERS WANT TO KNOW

Mathison, Carla. *Action in Teacher Education*, Volume 8, Fall 1986, pp. 79-86.

Mathison reports on a student-teacher survey conducted at San Diego State University relating to the wants and needs of student teachers in the area of educational technology. Approximately 300 student teachers completing the first and only required course in educational technology responded to the survey instrument.

The responses indicated that the students felt that instructional techniques in making transparencies, using projectors, and operating video equipment had been very thorough and comprehensive. The most interesting findings of the survey dealt with topics involving computers. Approximately 85 percent considered computer skills important, but only 10 percent felt satisfied with the amount of instruction they received, and less than 5 percent reported learning about computer use in any other teacher preparation courses. In general, the responses showed that the students desired to learn more about how to (1) integrate computers into the curriculum, (2) manage computer use in the classroom, (3) use the computer for student records and grades, (4) develop software for instruction, and (5) use graphics software for various bulletin boards, announcements, and handouts.

Mathison concludes by questioning where educational technology fits within existing teacher preparation courses. Do computer-assisted instruction and instructional video belong in the methods course or in a specific technology course? Where can students learn to develop supplementary software materials for use in student teaching? The author indicates that the input of the current preservice teachers is a good starting point because they are the children of the technological age and they see technology and its relationship to teaching through different eyes. Thus, their input can lead to innovative ways to deal with this form of teaching.

TEACHING TELEVISION LITERACY TO TEACHERS

McDaniel, Thomas R. *Educational Technology,* Volume 22, August 1982, pp. 13-16.

McDaniel describes a new graduate course for teachers at Converse College designed to help them examine the implications of television for education. The course description included justification, objectives, course content outline, resources, media, exam, and commentary.

Using Postman's "Teaching as a Conserving Activity" as a basis for departure, McDaniel attempted to enable teachers to become television-literate as students connecting television to schooling. Each person, individually, pursued a specialized topic, such as development of a teaching unit that connects television "content" to existing curriculum and of a comprehensive "critical viewing skills" program/activity packet for use by students. Station managers from affiliates of the three national networks and from the area public television stations appeared on a panel for the class.

Other resource persons included a sociologist and an educational psychologist, both of whom spoke on appropriate topics. A television reporter and his camera operator who came for program coverage shared with the class their views on news coverage and responded to questions on the art, science, economics, and politics of producing the nightly news. Tapes and live television, including commercials and soap operas, were used to engage the class in critical viewing of the medium. Home assignments to enhance critical viewing skills included such activities as keeping a log of their weekly TV viewing and evaluations of "hidden messages" in commercials.

The exam, which was keyed to course objectives, synthesized all the works of the institute. Essay questions distributed as a take-home exercise involved the use of Bloom's Taxonomy so that students had to respond to and apply the various levels of questioning.

McDaniel considers the project to be successful in that teachers left the course with a keener awareness of their own viewing habits and reactions to television and with a knowledge of how the television industry works both technically and commercially. He further states that teachers left with some valuable methods for developing critical viewing skills in students and for building an educational bridge between the television experience of children and the objectives of the curriculum of our public schools.

COMPUTER AWARENESS: TEACHING DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS

McDonald, Glenda, and William H. Holloway. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume 66, September 1982, pp. 92-97.

McDonald and Holloway describe the efforts of the faculty at the University of Kansas School of Education to provide for the increasing numbers of educators seeking advice about personal computers and about training in computer operation. A microcomputer laboratory has been developed, and course offerings in educational computing have been expanded.

The courses are primarily for developing computer awareness, or computer literacy. Few of the students have prior computer knowledge, and the older students are very apprehensive about working with computers. Thus, the laboratory experiences are structured to accommodate this situation. The plan calls for students to work in the laboratory in groups of two or three when an assistant is always present. Computer games are used to initiate the learners to this new tool. The learners gradually move from games to exploratory software requiring more advanced skills, to programming languages, and finally to literature reviews. The content is limited to five or six major topics selected to meet the needs of students.

Since the plan initially was to deal with the basics in a hands-on approach, little instruction was given by the instructors. The authors report that by the end of the first semester, the need was recognized for a method to facilitate learning and to demonstrate the use of computers, involving a minimum of resources. Highly structured laboratory experiences were designed to use specific instructional aids. A laboratory sheet providing a step-by-step guide through specified experiences was developed to serve as a checklist to be turned in when the assignment was completed. A second aid was developed to assist in the instruction of elementary students in the fundamentals of programming. This resulted in each student writing and running a short program for elementary students. BASIC terms were learned by university students, which enabled them to instruct elementary students in using a grid for drawing and transferring a simple pattern to the computer.

McDonald and Holloway conclude that the computer awareness and literacy courses have been and continue to be successful and effective. By using these courses, schools can begin the use of computers with a limited amount of equipment and faculty expertise.

TO BE OR NOT TO BE AS DEFINED BY T.V.: THE MEDIUM MAY BE MORE THAN THE MESSAGE

McGarvey, Jack. *Today's Education,* Volume 72, February-March 1982, pp. 33-36.

McGarvey describes the use of TV commercials in teaching English and the experience of having a television crew film his ninth-grade English class at Bedford Junior High School in Westport, Connecticut.

Analysis of the language used in television commercials was employed by McGarvey in teaching English. As a result of the analysis, McGarvey's class decided to write letters to companies that had made inaccurate or offensive advertising claims. After receiving scattered or no responses from some companies, McGarvey decided to send some of the unanswered letters, also including a brief explanation of the work of the class, to *Buyline,* a consumer advocate program that features investigation of consumer complaints.

WNBC, the television station which at that time aired *Buyline,* decided to visit the Westport School to film a role-playing activity McGarvey had planned for his class. The class was divided into committees, with each committee consisting of two students role-playing representatives from the Federal Trade Commission, two students acting as advertising executives, and two students playing the role of television executives. Each committee was directed to role-play a meeting with the goal of resolving an imaginary complaint about a make-believe television commercial.

As McGarvey met with the program's producer and director to plan the taping, he realized that they were interested in featuring only strong and attractive students in the taping and that the taping was going to be more of a staged production than an actual class. When the taping began, the students performing for the camera were far more attentive and responsive than they had ever been in normal classroom presentations. After extensive rephrasing of questions and student responses, however, students realized that making a tape was hard work. Five hours of taping produced only seven minutes of actual air time.

The author recalls that after the in-class taping, he and five students were invited to NBC studios to tape a follow-up segment. In this taping, the role-playing game was recreated with real advertising executives from the FTC and NBC as part of a panel discussion moderated by Betty Furness. McGarvey's concern with having students interact with adults who had obviously had experience in front of television cameras was overcome by the students responding well to the situation.

When the program was aired two weeks later, McGarvey viewed a heavily edited, slick production. When the students who had participated watched themselves on videotape, they were more concerned with how they looked than what they said. McGarvey had great difficulty getting them to recall what had actually taken place during the taping rather than to focus all their attention on the final product. Even when the videotape was shown to his next year's class, he found that they were more interested in visual images than in the real meaning of the program. Effort was made to remedy this problem by playing the program again with the video turned off so that the students could concentrate on analyzing the verbal interaction.

McGarvey recommends that all viewers should develop a healthy skepticism of what they see on television. He states that he sometimes thinks children possess a superior understanding of television in that they perceive that the edited product is the sole reality. He is strongly impressed with what classroom television can do to and for the teacher.

THE LITTLE COLLEGE THAT COULD

Steinke, Ralph G. *Instructional Innovator,* Volume 28, January 1983, pp. 14-16.

The success story of a community college's television-based courses is described by Steinke. He shows how the small college of Waubonsee, near Chicago, Illinois, with no television cable line and with undependable open-air service only, developed one of the largest telecourse programs in the state of Illinois.

At the beginning of the program, the college engaged in a cooperative venture with City College of Chicago to offer students two open-air telecourses. A grant allowed for the purchase of rights to five television courses, the conducting of workshops on implementation, and the operation of television courses. As interested faculty began more use of video cassettes as a delivery system, student enrollment in telecourses increased. Innovative leadership, favorable local and state conditions, and formation of the Northern Illinois Learning Resources Cooperative made it possible for Waubonsee to acquire rights to many telecourses.

According to Steinke, a flexible entrance-exit system on campus, in cooperation with libraries in the area, makes programs accessible. Use of only selected faculty, who meet informational and public relations qualifications appropriate for the management of telecourses, is a strong contributor to the success of the program. Further, there is careful evaluation of each telecourse by the instructor as to content and by the administrator as to appropriateness to the needs of the student population. Provision is also made for extra workload and compensation of instructors. Special attention is given to communicating with and supporting telecourse instructors, library/media staff, and students in such courses through special meetings, guidebooks, and an open hotline for communication.

Steinke reports that the future use of television teaching at Waubonsee Community College seems bright. Additional opportunities for telecourse programs and additional satellite public library locations are in the making. The organizational structure that provides for flexible videocassette student matriculation and study continues to be the strength of the Waubonsee telecourse program.

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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

Colleges are stiffening their admissions requirements; state boards of education are beefing up high school curriculums and are calling for monitoring of the achievement of elementary school students. Curriculum development and change in recent years has been the subject of criticism rather than of any favorable attention to educational accomplishments. The 1983 report from the President's Commission on Excellence in Education calling public schooling all but disgraceful has caused a wave of charges and counter-charges by the media across the nation as to who is to blame and what is to be done about the public schools, particularly as to what is taught and what is not taught—the curriculum. John Goodlad's "A Study of Schooling" examined the relationships between schools' goals, outcomes, and projections. The results of this study provide guidance for educators in understanding the current status of schools and also provide some direction for curriculum change and development.

President Reagan's insistence that education is a local responsibility poses the greatest challenge yet to the school curriculum. Schools are caught with limited systematic patterns or plans for prioritizing curriculum needs at state and local levels and with inadequate resources to formulate such. Curriculum designs and offerings from school to school have little consistency. This failure of educators to pursue any agreed-upon purposes and objectives in education has left schools open to attack by pressure groups with their own favored brands of education. The advent of federally funded research and development centers begun in the 1960's produced a tremendous bank of curriculum materials and plans for procedure. However, the more recent federal move toward eliminating resources for enabling schools to utilize these resources causes much frustration as to how to determine what to teach. The one remaining symbol of assistance (also on the wane) is the National Diffusion Network, supported by the National Institute of Education in order to evaluate, validate, and disseminate information patterns for any curriculum development and modification that may be considered by state and local curriculum developers.

Educators are confronted with more emphasis on the basics and with concern for better scores on tests for student admission to colleges, seemingly contrary to national mandates to educate the students who are disabled, bilingual, or in minorities. Such conflicts, complicated by involving more people in decision making, by providing due process in all matters for all persons, by decreasing clerical and systemwide personnel, and by reluctance on the part of teachers to cope with the extra burdens, create an impossible situation for any efforts to evaluate the curriculum and to follow through with appropriate modification.

The increasing emphasis on involving more persons and groups in curriculum decision-making processes often overshadows the selection of content and experiences to be encountered by the learners. State legislatures are mandating that certain areas be included in the curriculum. Organized pressure groups attack textbook selections, course offerings, and programs that seem to reflect value positions. Too often, views of such groups become the conscience of textbook publishers, legislators, and school administrators. Thereby curriculum decision-making reflects the voices of the noisy minority and deprives individual learners and the masses of educators reasonable opportunity for providing desirable curriculum change and development.

The federal government's increased involvement in education during the last two decades, up until recently, influenced the shift from the content-oriented approach to a more humanistic and utilitarian approach to curriculum and instruction. In some situations, uninvolved students are being returned to education through the offerings and modified curriculum provided by means such as dropout centers, learning centers, and centers for those students who are disruptive. Curriculum that provides for career education and instruction in technological developments is being influenced by societal emphases, job needs, and interests of youth. Many youths unable to function in structured schools are functioning well in unstructured educational settings. Here attention is given to learning in life situations, such as factories, retail stores, laboratories, libraries, city halls, and courtrooms.

The earlier shift toward the unstructured curriculum, along with the changing attitudes of youth toward education and many other factors, has brought this counter-emphasis on the part of some segments of the public to a call for "back to basics." As a result, some school systems are based almost totally on standard test scores. Some school systems have lengthened the school day and year, and many have increased high school requirements for graduation.

Ironically, John Goodlad's study showed that schools have concentrated, and continue to concentrate, on the fundamental operations that they have emphasized from the beginning. He says that "back to basics" is where we always have been. Unfortunately, he found little evidence that the schools go beyond the mere teaching of information to a level of understanding and application, of arousing curiosity, or of involving students in problem solving. Fortunately, however, there are situations that reveal the brighter side of the education picture.

Results from a follow-up of the use of recommendations from recent national studies revealed that the new science curriculum significantly improves student performance. Likewise, more objective approaches to reading and writing have proven to be effective tools for improving student achievement. Recent efforts to improve education have brought about plans and designs for using data as resources to determine objectives, content, and emphases for program improvement and development. Today, more attention seems to be given to improvement of curriculum in schools by following some systematic design or model. This is undertaken with caution, typically under the guidance of a professional educational consultant, with at least minimum involvement of those to be affected.

In keeping with practices of the past, movements in curriculum development and change are being promoted by national projects sponsored by foundations and organizations and, more recently, by federal commissions. Much attention is being given to recent reports, with various efforts to change the focus on education. Many changes in curriculum offerings in the name of higher standards are in the making. However, emphases of these movements are little different from those of prior decades, yet they speak to the mood of the times and will likely spark another wave of innovations in public schools.

One evident condition is that students, teachers, and community members now have more opportunity for participation in educational policy making and are showing determination for greater participation in decisions that affect their schooling and their lives. This is having its effect upon the clarification of educational goals; the deciding upon what responsibilities duly belong to the school, the home, and other institutions; and who is to pay for what.

The flood of recent innovative practices that have affected school curriculum has now slowed to a trickle. When curriculum making was mainly the responsibility of the administrative staff, it was easy to add or drop a course or a curriculum practice. Curriculum decisions are now more engrained in the complex relations found in the school, in the community, and in the conditions of society in general, making it less likely that "bandwagon" types of modifications can be inflicted upon those being educated.

A grave danger hanging over our schools is that of the test-dominated curriculum. Educational promotion based on minimum standards as determined by restricted testing may well deter implementation of the philosophy that every human being has a right to an education and to be treated as a human being. The competency movement may well mitigate toward the academically adequate and literate student who needs to go beyond the repetitive attention to basic facts and skills to that of developing his or her thinking, evaluative, and problem-solving capabilities.

Representative Synopses

HOW STATE INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS AFFECT TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Davis, Alan, and Allan Odden. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 67, April 1986, pp. 590-593.

Davis and Odden describe two programs in Arkansas and Maryland that illustrate how state programs for instructional improvement can work in local schools. Arkansas and Maryland were two of the five states recently studied by the Education Commission of the States (ECS) that direct school improvement efforts toward classroom instruction. The two schools described are Hammond Elementary School in Arkansas and Hotchkiss Elementary School in Maryland.

Hammond Elementary School's efforts for improvement were based on the Program for Effective Teaching (PET), a professional staff development program that trains teachers in a wide array of effective teaching skills and that trains principals in a set of techniques for helping teachers improve their instructional effectiveness. For teachers, PET is an inservice training program in instructional effectiveness; for principals and administrators, PET focuses on instructional supervision. The state's goal has been to create a statewide system that can develop and maintain clinical skills in teaching and supervision. The state has used a trainer-of-trainers approach to disseminate the program. The initial implementation of PET at Hammond depended on the development of local strategies and funding. The fact that the training cut across the traditional divisions between teachers and administrators was significant to the program. The shared training and planning, along with the cooperative aspect, were key points for implementation. The trainer-of-trainers approach has created a local pool of experts, which reduces reliance on the state.

The implementation of Maryland's School Improvement Through Instructional Process (SITIP) at Hotchkiss resembled that of the PET program in Hammond, Arkansas. However, instead of the single, state-supported approach, Maryland offered a choice of four instructional models, including (1) the Active Teaching model; (2) the Student Team Learning model, which used peer tutoring and cooperative teams of students; (3) the Teaching Variables model, which emphasized the content of instructional time; and (4) the Mastery Learning model, which focused on demonstrated student mastery of a sequence of objectives. Hotchkiss immediately chose the Active Teaching model because they saw it supplying the "how" to implement the new mathematics curriculum. As in Arkansas, the trainer-of-trainers strategy shifted the responsibility and leadership from the state to the local district.

Davis and Odden note that the failure of many innovative programs can be blamed on a lack of understanding of organizational change. Programs that work go beyond the initiation of an idea to the implementation and maintenance of the new practices that derive from it. Further, the authors conclude that it is essential to build in strategies that provide for continuing technical assistance, since the characteristics of effective schools are not separate pieces but rather interrelated elements of a school's ethos. Communication and cooperation were key factors in the two schools' efforts for improvement.

THE NORTH CAROLINA SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

Eilber, Charles R. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 68, June 1987, pp. 773-777.

Eilber describes the North Carolina School of Science and Mathematics (NCSSM), which was established in 1977 by Governor James Hunt as a public residential school for academically talented eleventh and twelfth graders. It was assumed that what was learned at the school could eventually help to improve science and mathematics instruction in all schools in the state. At the beginning of NCSSM, there were many questions raised about cost, elitism, and the skimming off of the best students from local schools in the state. The school has grown from 150 in 1977 to 475 in 1987, with a maximum enrollment of 600 to be reached in 1991. A former hospital in Durham became the site of the school's 27-acre campus. During the past year, students came from 89 of North Carolina's 100 counties, with 16 percent of the student body being black, Native American, or Hispanic, and 8 percent being Asian.

The school was founded on the philosophy that academic talent can be found in every segment of society, at every socioeconomic level, and in every community in the state. A multifaceted selection process is used, rather than depending on a score from any single test or instrument. The selection portfolio contains verbal and mathematical scores on the SAT, taken during the tenth grade; a nonverbal test of critical thinking; student grades from the ninth and tenth grades; a checklist of characteristics of academically talented students completed by a teacher or counselor; an essay written by students to check their logical thinking and creative expression; letters of recommendation from teachers; and a statement from the student suggesting the contributions he or she could make to the program if selected. After this, personal interviews are conducted to identify those who will be admitted.

The NCSSM is a comprehensive high school, with each student completing at least two units of mathematics and three units of science during his or her two years in residence. Courses are offered in mathematics, computer science, biology, chemistry, and physics. In addition, English is required both years, along with a foreign language chosen from French, Spanish, German, Russian, Latin, or Chinese. U.S. history is also required. A variety of electives in music, the visual arts, and social sciences are offered. A number of interdisciplinary courses are offered as well. Most courses are taught at an advanced level. A mentor program permits many seniors to spend at least one afternoon per week working one-to-one with researchers in the universities and corporate laboratories of North Carolina's

Research Triangle area. Many students compete in statewide and national competition based on their group and individual research projects. The residential setting of the school has provided a great variety of social and recreational activities. Also, over 4,000 teachers have been involved in summer workshops during the past 10 years as a key component of the school's public service efforts.

Eilber states that the NCSSM, the first publicly supported residential school in the U.S., has become a national and international model. The states of Louisiana and Illinois have opened similar schools, and the country of Jordan will open one in the near future. He concludes that one of the most important resources at the NCSSM is time and that being a residential school makes it possible to increase the time during which students have access to the school's facilities. Flexibility and availability are two important factors for this type of innovative school.

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND THE MONOCULTURAL STUDENT: A CASE STUDY

Fuller, Mary Lou, and Janet Ahler. *Action in Teacher Education*, Volume 9, Fall 1987, pp. 33-40.

Fuller and Ahler describe the multicultural education programs at the University of North Dakota's Center for Teaching and Learning (CTL). Although the University of North Dakota is predominantly a monocultural campus, approximately 150 students a year enroll in multicultural education through the CTL. The program has operated with four goals: (1) to help students develop personal identification with members of culturally diverse groups, (2) to help students develop greater sensitivity for other cultures, (3) to help preservice teachers define and appreciate their own culture, and (4) to help preservice teachers gain exposure to multicultural teaching techniques.

In the particular project studied by the authors, the project's format was a series of interactions between CTL multicultural students and three elementary schools in various geographic locations representing diverse cultures. Students and teachers introduced the CTL multicultural education students to their ethnic communities and school environments. These field-school teachers were represented by two fifth-grade classes at Rancho Viejo School in Yuma, Arizona, representing a pluralistic environment with a large Hispanic population; a Chicago inner-city preschool with an all-black population; and a sixth-grade Native American class at White Shield, North Dakota, on the Fort Berthold Reservation.

Three of the four teachers were brought to the campus to share their rich multicultural experiences. The Chicago teacher was represented by a local teacher experienced in inner-city teaching. The four teachers engaged in discussions with small groups, presented panel discussions, and met with students and faculty to offer concrete suggestions for multicultural teaching activities. Both the field teachers and the CTL students completed evaluations based on meeting the four goals of the project. The degree of success reported was usually dependent upon the degree of student involvement through letters to and from the three selected "field" schools and upon the interaction with the teachers when they visited the University of North Dakota. The series of interactions proved to be a practical format for learning more about other cultures.

Fuller and Ahler state that activities offering monocultural students exposure to other cultures may act as a catalyst for the development of the attitudes and skills needed in teaching diverse cultures. The evaluations suggested that the project had two outcomes: (1) an increased understanding of others and (2) development of risk-taking behaviors that expanded the horizons of the preservice students in preparing them to work in multicultural settings.

WHAT SOME SCHOOLS AND CLASSROOMS TEACH

Goodlad, John I. *Educational Leadership*, Volume 40, April 1983, pp. 8-19.

Goodlad describes and reports findings on an extensive study of schools in "triples"—connecting elementary, junior, and senior high schools. This study gave particular attention to the curriculum domain along with teaching practices, school and classroom organization, materials used, problems and issues, and rules and regulations involving 129 elementary classes, 362 junior high classes, and 525 senior high classes. Major attention was given in this report to findings relevant to three questions: (1) What are schools asked to do? (2) What do schools do? and (3) What should schools do?

In order to determine what schools are for, those making the study examined the goals documents of the 50 states and the districts in which the schools studied were located. To determine what schools do, they examined the materials used and the tests and quizzes given, and they observed extensively what went on in classrooms.

Upon examination of goals documents, Goodlad and associates found broad and idealistic expectations for schools in the academic, social and citizenship, vocational, and personal categories. These were specified with considerable clarity and were in general agreement among the states. Subject fields identified for learning these goals, in order of most frequent listing, were language skills, mathematics, science, social studies, interpersonal skills and topics derived from civics and from the behavioral sciences, and the arts. Interpretation of the specifics of the goals documents conveys to Goodlad the image of students being involved in writing, participating in dialogue, initiating questions, communicating in groups, and developing satisfying relations with others.

Goodlad reports that his impressions of the data on the schools revealed that students were involved in experiences quite contrary to the specified goals. Observation showed that the priority being given to reading, writing, and basic arithmetic was in keeping with the goals. The rather high importance given to vocational documentary goals was verified, often at the expense of academic subjects and of the intellectual emphasis desired by many parents. Attention given to science and social studies indicated that they were considered of less importance than language arts and mathematics, while the arts, and especially foreign languages, ranked further down in priority.

The nature of content and process, as reported by Goodlad, is that of consistent and repetitive attention to basic facts and skills without the development of abilities commonly listed under "intellectual development," such as rational thinking, use and evaluation of knowledge, intellectual curiosity, and desire for further learning. Two major deficiencies noted in the study were failure to differentiate and see relationships between facts and concepts and to view subjects and subject matter as merely turfs on which to gain experiences and to develop understandings. Accordingly, Goodlad concludes that school programs are more oriented to topics, courses, and skills than to using knowledge and process in the development of human beings.

As to what the schools should be doing, Goodlad repeatedly points out discrepancies between goals set forth by states and districts and their implementations in the curriculum. He indicates that fulfillment of goals as set forth by states and districts could cause schools to be significantly more effective in educating human beings who are creative and intellectually independent and who have high moral integrity. Thus far, he says, our nation has designed and supported schools capable of doing only the simplest part of what is possible should other societal institutions work with schools.

THE 1980'S: SEASON FOR HIGH SCHOOL REFORM

Gray, Dennis. *Educational Leadership*, Volume 39, May 1982, pp. 564-568.

Dennis Gray identifies, describes, and makes some predictions about six national projects designed to reform secondary education. He says these projects are in response to the wave of criticism thrust upon the U.S. high school.

Projects presented by Gray are The Paideia Proposal, Project Equality, An Education of Value, A Study of High Schools, A Study of the American High School, and Redefining General Education in the American High School.

The Paideia Proposal presents Mortimer Adler's case for schooling that he claims would ensure the intellectual grounding for all children. The College Board, through the efforts of George Hanford, is using Project Equality to chart stronger college preparatory programs in high schools. A set of 35 competencies essential to success of high school graduates the first year of college is accompanied by a basic academic curriculum publication designed to provide structure for the prescribed competencies.

Gray further reports that the National Academy of Education, under the leadership of Bailey and McLaughlin, has sought to examine the value assumptions underlying U.S. secondary education. Results of their findings are provided in the publication "An Education of Value." NASSP and NAIS, under the leadership of Theodore Sizer, report their study of high schools with a collection of essays analyzing forces on education, a report on field studies in high schools, and a plan for improving "basic educational transactions between teacher, student, and subject." The Carnegie Foundation's (Ernest Boyer, President) Study of the American High School is culminated by grants given to high schools across the country to attack, according to specific recommendations, problems identified in the schools. Gordon Cawelti is working with 17 high schools, in cooperation with ASCD, in planning and implementing local curriculum changes based on an analysis of educational literature and on an investigation of the curriculum goals and objectives within each school.

Gray asserts that the projects are all likely to present reports that are both judgmental and descriptive, with themes such as strong emphases on goals; a core curriculum; education and professional training of teachers; attention to mathematics, science, computers, writing, history, and foreign language; and progression from schooling to life after high school graduation.

He recognizes that there are successful schools in operation and that these challenge others. The important ingredient, he says, is will. Unless school people have the will to improve, no value can come from the findings of the studies and projects, regardless of their merit.

TEAMING: A CONCEPT THAT WORKS

Harmon, Saundra Bryn. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 64, January 1983, pp. 366-367.

Harmon describes a team approach to curriculum development used for the past 10 years at Ironwood School in Phoenix, Arizona. This junior high school team is composed of six seventh-grade teachers, six eighth-grade teachers, and special teachers in the areas of music, art, special education, home economics, physical education, and industrial arts.

The 20 teachers in the team have team meetings at least one night per week. These meetings are characterized by an open-door policy that invites brainstorming and discussion of both general and specific items on the agenda. One important team point-of-view is that curriculum encompasses all aspects of the school program. Team members also support the position that decisions are stronger when they come from the team. As one example of team effort, any paper turned in, regardless of subject area, should be graded not only for its content but also for usage, spelling, and neatness.

The team approach has provided Ironwood School with a multitude of minicourses, remedial courses, and enrichment offerings because of the detailed planning provided by the 20 diverse members of the team. A constant exchange of ideas and an emerging leadership are positive aspects of teaming.

Harmon concludes that teaming will not work without an administration that fosters an open organizational climate. There must be an enthusiastic, positive, and professional staff to implement the program if teaming is to be successful. Teaming can work when there is staff support, encouragement of initiative, and delegation of responsibility to team members.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: A DIALOGUE PROCESS MODEL

Hill, John C., and Leo H. Bradley. *The Educational Forum*, Volume XLVII, Spring 1983, pp. 373-378.

A "dialogue process" for curriculum development as implemented in seven local school districts in southwestern Ohio is described by Hill and Bradley. The process, utilized with approximately 17,000 students (K-12) and approximately 600 teachers, included specification of assumptions, selection of faculty leaders, selection of a goals and objectives framework, and the implementation of a process of dialogue and consensus.

Some assumptions supported by the process were: teachers are the experts about what, about how, and about the learners; teachers are the most creditable consultants to other teachers; all levels of leadership must be informed, must participate, and must support a curriculum development effort; and a consensus gained through dialogue will result in commonly accepted elements of the curriculum and will preserve local autonomy. Language arts (K-12) was selected as the area for curriculum development. Twenty-eight teacher leaders were released for the curriculum involvement—one each for the levels of primary, intermediate, middle school, and secondary from the seven local school districts.

The Westinghouse goals and objectives framework was selected as a guide for the faculty members to use in developing their framework. After specific steps for review and criticism were followed, only about 30 percent of the Westinghouse goals and objectives were included in the Ohio framework. The process included a faculty leaders workshop, a local inservice program run directly by the faculty leader, and a feedback workshop for the faculty leaders.

The process of dialogue and consensus included starting from a basic agreement determined by polling the group, moving to general ideas when agreement could not be reached on specifics, establishing decision-making rules, and taking ownership for individual opinions. Participants were reminded that consensus in decision making is accomplished under conditions such as atmosphere of trust and respect, recognition of commonly held values, hearing out of individual concerns, and commitment by each person to the consensus achieved.

Hill and Bradley recognize that there are weaknesses and problems with the dialogue process, such as time and resource efficiency, understanding of the process, and viewing of the outcome as beneficial. Some mistakes were observed, such as not accurately communicating the purpose of the procedure, not following guidelines, not involving all teachers, and not resolving local differences. Nevertheless, as the authors viewed the project, dialogue occurred between teacher leaders across district boundaries, a structured set of steps was observed by the teachers and leaders in utilizing a nationally recognized curriculum product, and faculty interchange was effected. Hill and Bradley conclude that a valid curriculum document had been produced and that a communication network for these educators had been initiated.

A SYSTEMATIC MODEL FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Hunkins, Francis P. *NASSP Bulletin,* Volume 69, May 1985, pp. 23-27.

Francis P. Hunkins, a professor of curriculum at the University of Washington, presents a seven-step model that provides a linear and rational approach to curriculum development. The author emphasizes that curriculum development is not a simple process. It is much more than the selection of the best textbook.

The steps of the model are as follows: The first and often-neglected step is "front-end analysis." This is where the curriculum is conceptualized and legitimized. Curriculum content must be built upon the particular society's values, beliefs, knowledge bases, institutions, and artifacts. The next step is curriculum diagnosis. This is the stage where the actual aims, goals, and objectives are developed. Next, the content selection is made. Within selection, the significance, validity, interest, learnability, and feasibility of the content should be questioned. The organization of the content is usually handled in one of two ways—by discipline design or by student-centered design. At this stage, the content must also be sequenced: world-related, concept-related, learning-related, and inquiry-related. In the next step, it must be decided how the students will experience the curriculum. Here the educators decide what methods, strategies, activities, incentives, and materials will be used. Hunkins calls this step experience selection. The final three steps of the model are curriculum implementation, curriculum evaluation, and curriculum maintenance.

Hunkins concludes that the use of a systematic curriculum development model will increase the likelihood that those involved will have studied the issues, will have responded to educational demands, and will have assisted in creating a tangible document that can guide them and their colleagues in furnishing quality education.

COGNITIVE STYLE AND INSTRUCTIONAL PREFERENCES: SOME INFERENCES

Kagan, Dona M. *The Educational Forum*, Volume 51, Summer 1987, pp. 393-403.

Kagan discusses four studies on cognitive style determined by two measures: the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire. The Myers-Briggs uses four bipolar dimensions: (1) sensing vs. intuition, (2) thinking vs. feeling, (3) judging vs. perceiving, and (4) introvert vs. extrovert. The Inquiry Mode Questionnaire focuses on five prototypes of thinking: synthesist, idealist, analyst, realist, and pragmatist. The four studies involved kindergarten teachers, graduate students in a microlesson, elementary teachers, and undergraduate education students. The author notes that with the exception of the classroom observers used in the kindergarten study, all aspects of cognitive style, communicator style, and instructional ideology or behavior were self-reported in the studies. Scores on the different scales represented the way teachers viewed themselves.

The teachers in the four studies consistently appeared to associate student-centered instruction with affect and teacher-centered instruction with analytic cognition. Another finding showed that teachers who evaluated information through intuition, feeling, and perceiving dimensions and who tended to be idealistic consistently endorsed instructional philosophies and behaviors that emphasized student participation and individual rather than group learning. In contrast, the tendency to prefer thinking, judging, or sensing modes and to be pragmatic and realistic was related to the endorsement of teacher-structured methods and to the role of information giver.

Kagan notes that some disturbing inferences can be drawn from the four studies. First, a clear dichotomy appears to be drawn between affective vs. analytic instruction, with the two being seen as mutually inconsistent. A second inference would be that the most cognitively capable teachers may eschew student-centered teaching methods because they perceive them to be soft on cognitive content. Third, the brightest teachers may tend to encourage dependency rather than self-direction in students.

Kagan concludes that those who work in preparing future teachers need to make a conscious effort to destroy this assumed dichotomy of cognitive vs. child-centered approach by graphically showing preservice teachers how an academically rigorous program of instruction can also be student-centered and, conversely, how an affective, student-centered approach need not be intellectually bankrupt. The unification of affect and intellect is possible through the efforts of knowledgeable teachers who fully understand the importance of cognitive styles in teaching and learning.

TEACHERS PLANNING SCHOOL REFORM

Mooradiam, Paul W., Richart Niece, and James Hardy. *The High School Journal,* Volume 70, February-March 1987, pp. 125-128.

In 1984, five high schools from four public school systems and four universities formed the Northeast Ohio Coalition of High Schools for the Future. This was part of a major effort in response to the numerous reform reports of the 1980's.

The major concern of the project is the redesign of the organizational structure of the high school. The reorganization plan is based on two goals: (1) making teachers more active in the planning and decision-making process and (2) utilizing all resources more effectively to improve student learning and quality of life.

Leadership teams, resource persons, and representatives of the four universities met for a two-week workshop to study major reform elements identified by the various reports. The workshop was designed to increase participant knowledge of high school reform issues, to train the teams to facilitate reform efforts, and to enable the teams to formulate an action plan for the development of a site implementation proposal. Follow-up miniseminars were conducted to assist in actual individual school proposal development.

Thirteen intended outcomes occurred during the first year of the project. These outcomes included factors such as increased staff involvement in school reform, extensive media coverage of school activities, greater-than-expected collaboration between schools and universities, and site visitations and exchanges between teachers and students. Some unanticipated positive outcomes that emerged included the receipt of state and national level support for the project and more intense community support than expected. Some problematic issues that arose included budgetary complications, participant attrition in the schools, and scheduling difficulties of project activities within the complex system calendars.

After completing the second year of the project in what the authors note as a forward-moving effort, the results have been identified as threefold. First, a framework involving a collegial and comprehensive design has been developed for future project activities. Second, the participants from all levels are now meeting collectively to discuss definitive questions related to high school reform. And finally, the teachers have begun taking a major active part in all project decisions.

VERMONT COMMISSION TAKES NEW LOOK AT PUBLIC EDUCATION

Vogelsong, John D., and Alan H. Weiss. *NASSP Bulletin,* Volume 66, September 1982, pp. 126-129.

Vogelsong and Weiss describe the function of Governor Richard Snelling's Commission on Education, which studied and made recommendations for improving education in Vermont. Specific attention is called to recommendations proposed for changing the educational delivery system—the school curriculum.

Governor Snelling called upon the Education Commission of the States in 1977, during a national convention, to establish some goals, objectives, and fundamentals that citizens have a right to expect from education. He then formed a special commission to study the status of elementary and secondary education in Vermont and to make recommendations for the future.

Vogelsong and Weiss share the six major goals proposed by the commission, the recommendations considered most significant, and some public reaction to the report of the commission. After a year's study, goals were formulated, which are: support for students to reach their potential and to be contributing members of society; focus on students learning the basic languages—verbal, mathematical, and artistic; provision for individual needs of students; maintenance of the good order necessary for learning; and organization, planning, and operation for efficient use of resources in meeting goals. Recommendations for implementing goals included development of means for cooperative working of school personnel and parent/guardians and development of specific directions for teacher training and evaluation.

According to the authors, the most significant recommendations of the commission related to the delivery system—the curriculum. These recommendations included school readiness programs for children ages four to six, grouping in grades 1-3 with team teachers and aides, nongrading of curriculum K-12 grouping and clustering by subjects, courses designed to teach elements of basic languages (verbal, mathematical, and artistic), statewide assessment of learning and teaching of basic languages, continuous review of the curriculum, individual student academic plans reviewed by advisors, alternative programs within each school system, and a code of student rights and responsibilities developed by each school board.

Vogelsong and Weiss report that there were considerable activity and discussion generated from the report of the commission, as noted in state, regional, and local conferences and meetings. After extensive consideration, the recommendations of the commission were endorsed by leading groups such as the state department of education, the University of Vermont, the Southeast Vermont superintendents, and the Vermont Headmaster's Association. Other groups, including the Vermont legislature, are still studying the recommendations of the special commission study of education in Vermont.

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EDUCATIONAL CLIMATE

Educational climate in the past was strongly influenced by the school and the church. While that influence is still present, the past two decades have brought changes to the closely bound neighborhood school setting. Consolidation of schools has provided greater curricular opportunities, but consolidation has reduced parental and community involvement to some extent. A return to the local school concept has been encouraged by factors such as expansion of community colleges, junior colleges, industrial assistance, and parental involvement. In addition, many career education programs, volunteer programs, and community services have been incorporated within the present school structure. These changes and modifications have affected the educational climate of schools across the country. Today the two broad areas influencing educational climate are the environmental conditions of the total school program and the current controversial nature of schooling. These factors have made a strong impact on classroom teachers. It is imperative that teachers possess a high state of awareness and some expertise in relating to the educational environment in both the positive and negative aspects.

Some factors affecting the environmental conditions in schools today include issues such as noise pollution, collegiality among co-workers, community assistance, foundation assistance, and external forces in the curriculum decision-making process. These and other basic environmental conditions can have a profound effect on what happens in the classroom. Many schools have eliminated the arts program and human relations resource personnel as a first effort at budget cuts. Careful study is necessary when the total school environment is being subjected to budget cuts affecting curriculum change.

Many factors in environmental conditions can be addressed and solved at the local level through cooperative efforts of the school and community. Programs around the country have become more involved with local industries and business concerns in developing strong cooperative programs that stress improvements in local environmental conditions. The strength of school-industry cooperative programs has been the commitment to better the working and environmental conditions of both students and teachers. The spectrum stretches from cutting down on noise in school areas to designing large-scale community foundations to assist local schools in a variety of areas.

Another factor affecting educational climate is that of current controversial issues involving public education. These controversial issues often involve legislative mandates controlling the curriculum or budget and censorship of textbooks and library books. Teacher strikes, merit and incentive pay, and mandated competency requirements cause many legal problems. Some internal problems involve teacher tenure, job satisfaction, professional discretion, and teachers choosing to leave the profession. Another area of conflict involving teachers is the teaching of controversial subjects such as sex education, drug abuse education, family life education, and religion in the public schools. These special areas affect the classroom teacher because they tend to fall into the affective area of feelings, values, and attitudes. Teachers are pulled in many directions by well-meaning parents and community citizens who do not fully comprehend the total educational climate of a certain school or district. Parental involvement can assist when programs are designed to meet a wide variety of student needs. The educational environment can be viewed from a posture of cooperative effort emphasizing factors such as learning to appreciate diversity, becoming accountable, and learning to resolve conflicts through detailed work plans.

Social changes involving multicultural concerns, language problems, and urbanization have caused teacher concern in recent years. These conditions have driven many teachers to private schools, where they sense a more workable learning situation may be present. Teacher burnout is influenced greatly by the climate of a school—through noise and sight pollution and internal stresses built up over a long period of time in a negative educational climate. Student rights impact on legal issues facing teachers through district regulations and court decisions concerning student dress, due process, school searches, and discipline/management aspects. When these factors are considered, an escalating process may develop in which problems impact on each other, resulting in a difficult educational environment for thoughtful teachers. However, many awareness programs have been developed to assist teachers in understanding and improving the educational climate in their schools and districts.

Recently, many communities have sought to improve educational climate by forming community foundations and advisory groups to consider problems involving discipline, textbooks, censorship, ethnic differences, and curriculum changes. These groups work closely with classroom teachers to improve the school and community climate. Some of the problems are very difficult to resolve because of their controversial nature. It is possible that hard feelings in the community may result from these various problem areas of the curriculum. Community services and volunteers have assisted in environmental renewal, career education, and health education programs to provide examples of positive projects that have improved the educational climate of certain schools and districts. The volunteer feature has been a key factor in these successful programs, and the volunteer personnel have become effective liaison persons between school and community. Thus when the next textbook battle approaches, a better understanding of textbook selection should be present because of the involvement of many individuals in school and community problems. These groups can play an important role because they realize the complexities involved in improving curriculum programs and the many factors contributing to the total educational environment and climate.

There are many forces affecting the educational climate of local schools. The rapid changes of industry and business in order to maintain a profitable level, demands from the public for better instruction with less money, censorship of books, the emergence of community assistance, and teacher evaluation have all influenced educational climate to some extent. In addition, the legal and controversial aspects of teaching have compounded many problem areas. This has forced a time of teacher self-evaluation and has raised many questions about the environmental conditions teachers find themselves working in. These questions provide a positive springboard for exploring ways to improve the educational climate, which in turn can provide for improved instruction under better working conditions. When thinking in terms of the total environment, the three areas of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor outcomes can be more successfully incorporated into the curriculum.

The implications for educators in working toward a more positive educational climate include developing skills and expertise in group processes, in committee work, in human relations training, in local history, in industrial/business processes, and in legal information involving court cases and controversial areas. Many of these skills can be developed and maintained through joint school-community programs and through innovative teacher-developed programs that address controversial issues impacting on school climate. The involvement and participation of teachers and resource persons from the community can provide solutions to specific local concerns. In this type of educational climate, the emphasis is on a process-oriented approach where students, teachers, and community members become adaptable to societal changes and perform accordingly. Despite the many problems involved, educational climate can be improved when sound programs are developed through increased teacher input into the curriculum and through cooperative efforts of the school and community.

Representative Synopses

REAL-WORLD SCIENCE

Anderson, Trudy S. *The Science Teacher*, Volume 49, May 1982, pp. 41-43.

Anderson describes a program for gifted students who sample scientific careers designed by the Jefferson County, Alabama, school system, which serves 1,200 gifted students and employs 41 teachers certified in gifted education. The ecternship program for gifted secondary science students provides for out-of-school enrichment programs that allow these students to work with professionals within a scientific discipline.

Jefferson County has established resource learning centers as branches of the county's program for special education. As a science teacher at Gardendale High School, Anderson coordinates the ecternship program at her school by matching student requests to appropriate ecternship sponsors. These sponsors represent professionals such as geneticist, lab technician, electron microscopist, physician, veterinarian, biochemist, and cancer researcher. Approximately 40 ecterns participate in the program one day in November each year, when they spend the entire day with their sponsors. The Jefferson County area's largest university, medical school, and numerous research and engineering institutions, as well as many private scientists, provide a "pool" of excellent candidates for ectern sponsorships. Students prepare well in advance for "Ecternship Day," and on the day following the visit, the students gather for a seminar to describe their visits to school officials, teachers, and parents. Program sponsors assist in evaluating the ectern program.

Anderson points out that many students establish lasting ties with their sponsors, who effectively become trusted advisors. This has proved to be a positive mechanism for bolstering direct communication between school and community. In addition, Anderson notes that participating students become better acquainted with scientific concepts and inquiry skills even as they learn to translate the academic subject "science" into a way of working in the everyday world. This program makes it possible for talented youth to become involved in the search for solutions to real-life scientific problems. A key element in the ectern program is the commitment and assistance of the community and of the science professionals in the community.

AFTER-SCHOOL DISCUSSION HELPS PROBLEM STUDENTS

Bourke, Walter, and Ronnie D. Furniss. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 69, November 1987, pp. 241-242.

Bourke and Furniss describe the After-School Discussion (ASD) Program at Decatur Central High School in Indianapolis, Indiana. The program is based on the assumption that students' school-related problems are tied to their personal problems. It becomes necessary for them to learn to cope with situations in their personal lives if students are to succeed in school. The weekly after-school meetings use a topical approach with the 10 relevant topics, including decision making, interpersonal communication, stress management, personal responsibility/accountability, crisis management, peer relationships, organizational management, self-examination, self-concept, and planning for success.

Flexibility is the key to the topical approach, with the two assistant principals serving as facilitators of the discussions. Efforts are made to increase student involvement through written assignments and follow-up conferences in which students summarize important points. The students involved in the ASD program were previously identified as those with chronic behavior problems, and they and their parents chose ASD as an alternative to other disciplinary measures.

The authors conclude by commenting on the results of an anonymous evaluation of the program by the students involved. The student responses were positive about the ASD program and revealed that the students felt they were able to cope with both personal and academic problems after one year in the program. Bourke and Furniss concluded that the ASD program seeks to treat the causes, not merely the symptoms, of student problems.

COMMUNITY FOUNDATIONS FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Calvin, Allen D., and Patricia Keen. *Phi Delta Kappan*, Volume 64, October 1982, pp. 126-127.

Calvin and Keen describe the function of the San Francisco Education Fund (SFEF), a community foundation formed to assist the public schools in that district. It was formed three years ago from a $100,000 grant from the Cowell Foundation.

The Management Center, a nonprofit group that acts as a consultant to nonprofit organizations such as the Cowell Foundation, helped develop the program, along with a board of directors that included leaders from volunteer organizations, from labor and community groups, and from the business community, with a good mix of genders and ethnic backgrounds. SFEF has maintained strong ties with both the school administration and the teachers. During its first two years, SFEF had revenues in excess of one-half million dollars due to contributions from corporations, other foundations, and individuals. Funds are divided into three categories: (1) funds for operating expenses, (2) funds for programs in which SFEF operates as a fiscal agent, and (3) direct grant funding that involves 98 programs in 55 schools. These programs are in art, music, basic skills, curriculum enrichment, environmental science, assistance with those who are disabled, and schoolwide projects. Specifically, three excellent projects that SFEF has made possible are a solar greenhouse at an alternative elementary school, an All-City High School Youth Orchestra, and a cross-cultural peer tutoring program for Asian and Hispanic students at Balboa High School.

SFEF regards the evaluation of the 98 programs as critical to its goal of improving public education in San Francisco. To this end, many thorough on-site visits and examinations of project reports have been conducted to measure success and applicability to other sites. The senior author notes that the success of SFEF was due to the decision to focus on teacher-initiated programs at individual schools. This maintenance of the strong ties with both the teacher and the school administrator has been a consistent factor since the inception of the program. Other helpful factors have been good leadership from the full-time director, the board of directors, and the University of San Francisco Education Associates.

Calvin and Keen conclude that in the present economic climate, new approaches to improve education in public schools are a necessity. The SFEF is one of these new approaches that demonstrates how effective a community foundation can be.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS: WHY DO THEY LEAVE TEACHING?

Chapman, David W., and Sigrid M. Hutcheson. *American Educational Research Journal,* Volume 19, Spring 1982, pp. 93-105.

Chapman and Hutcheson conducted a secondary analysis of data originally collected as part of alumni surveys undertaken by three public universities in Indiana. Five hundred ninety individuals were selected and further divided into teaching and nonteaching groups. Differences between "teach" and "nonteach" groups were computed using discriminate function analysis.

The findings showed that many who did not remain in teaching left to better utilize their educational experiences. Elementary and secondary teachers remaining in teaching were characterized as having greater organizational skills, while those leaving teaching were characterized as having greater analytical skills. The authors of this study developed the hypothesis that those leaving teaching would assign greater importance to job autonomy and salary increases while those remaining would assign more importance to recognition by other people, particularly supervisors and friends. The results supported this hypothesis at both the elementary and secondary levels.

Chapman and Hutcheson concluded that the quality of the interpersonal relationships between teachers and administrators and the positive value and recognition that teachers receive from their larger circle of friends are of particular importance in teachers' self-assessment of their success. These results heighten the concerns to teachers of declining public confidence in education and of the problems between teachers and administrators in many places. The interpersonal dimension and its relation to success are important elements in teacher retention.

THE LITTLE SCHOOL THAT HAS IT ALL

Eberle, Nancy. *Educational Horizons*, Volume 61, Spring 1983, pp. 111-115.

Eberle describes Elizabeth School, located in a rural area of northwestern Illinois. Elizabeth is a small community of 750 with a school population of 400. The school has a K-8 program for the gifted, a Title I remedial program through grade 12, a reputation for excellence in all subjects, and a record of half its graduates going on to college.

The educational climate of the school is greatly influenced by its rural nature. The town is a farm service center, with 70 percent of the students coming from farm families and the rest from the town which caters to the farm community. The school and the community place learning as the top priority over Gallup poll concerns such as discipline, drug abuse, and financial problems. The school is concerned with many areas but places the greatest emphases on humanism in the school's approach to instruction. The school and community have a homogeneous value system that students and parents agree on; it is characterized by hard work and a "pay-your-own-way" philosophy. The parents have a vested interest in the school, and the school serves as the center of community life and activity. This is possible through the ownership of land, the small student body, and the educational climate of the school and community.

A key factor to the success of Elizabeth School is personalized instruction. The school has developed a tradition of looking at each student as an individual and then offering a program to suit the student. Examples are a special science class for five freshmen, a physics class with two students, and a college English class with one student. The faculty perceives itself as an extended family and operates with a high degree of cooperation among the faculty. The superintendent, Jim Burgett, stresses the importance of the relationships involving the school board, the administration, the teachers, the students, and the community and the logical, reasonable communication used by the five groups in decision making. As one example, Elizabeth's negotiating formula for the past three years has been that the board decides the percentage increase and that the teachers, after approving it, decide how it will be spent.

Eberle points out the importance of Elizabeth School's smallness and the positive communication with parents as being part of the secret to the school's success. She concludes by noting that the Elizabeth school has a high degree of initiative and the willingness to innovate, has dedicated itself to the pursuit of excellence, and has the Elizabeth spirit of good feelings all around. This positive school climate may be beyond the reach of crowded urban schools, but the example this school sets could be reached in many schools through a strong commitment to individual excellence.

CHICAGO'S ADOPT-A-SCHOOL PROGRAM

Franchine, Philip C. *American Education*, Volume 18, July 1982, pp. 23-28.

Franchine describes Chicago's Adopt-A-School Program, which was organized in June of 1981 to bring new resources and energy into a school system marked by absenteeism, the highest dropout rate in the nation, court battles over desegregation, enormous deficits, and budget cuts. As designed by Superintendent Ruth Love, the program was developed to encourage the private sector to contribute volunteers, ideas, and occasional donations of equipment or money.

The program has attracted 73 adopting agencies, which have developed 112 relationships with 86 schools, taking into account multiple adoptions. The plan is for all 600 Chicago public schools to be adopted within five years. Among the programs are tutors, donated computer terminals, advertising competition, a sports health program, a health care survey, career education, family counseling, and work-study programs. Program Coordinator Al Sterling maintains that all the programs focus strictly on basic skills. The Chicago program has involved top corporate officers and employees at all levels who have been eager to contribute time and energy.

Evaluations have been collected from both businesses and schools. Generally, these detailed evaluations have rated the program a success. However, the evaluations pointed out that some of the programs were short on basic skills emphasis. These evaluations reveal that businesspeople have found that the schools are not as bad as they thought but not as good as they would like them to be.

In summary, Franchine notes that the organized business community has been cautiously optimistic about the Adopt-A-School Program, but they realize that the necessary resources have to be there to make sure the program grows properly. This program is a classic example of community involvement with businesses, providing a high degree of leadership to improve the local school district. The team concept of school/business cooperation has been a key element in the program.

CREATE THE PROPER ATMOSPHERE TO BRIGHTEN YOUR SCHOOL CLIMATE

Hammond-Matthews, Janice, and Helene Mills. *The Executive Educator,* Volume 9, May 1987, pp. 26, 29.

The authors describe a morale improvement program in two schools in Birmingham, Michigan. The program was an outgrowth of a systemwide morale improvement program. Quarton Elementary School and Derby Middle School became participants in the School Climate Project, developed by Karen Roth, a local consultant.

The authors, principals at the two participant schools, proposed the project to their respective staffs and let the staffs decide if they were interested in full participation. Upon staff endorsement of the project, the two schools surveyed their employees and parents to determine their level of satisfaction with the school. Varying levels of satisfaction were found in both schools. At Quarton, future direction was guided by a School Climate Steering Committee consisting of interested staff members. Derby chose to use a total staff involvement effort, with each member of the staff serving on one of three task forces identified during their review of the survey results.

The school board and the superintendent allocated $4,000 for the project-related activities. Each activity throughout the year was designed with a particular goal in mind, derived from the survey identification of weaknesses. Quarton activities included a Valentine's Day luncheon, a spirit day, and a staff party with efforts aimed at improving staff communications. At Derby, a student incentive program was established to encourage respect for staff members and a greater sense of caring among staff members and students. Additional activities included athletic competitions, picnics, and social gatherings. Many of the programs at both of the schools involved cooperative efforts of students, teachers, and parents to enhance the total concept of the school climate.

The project has been evaluated as a success at both of the schools. They have decided to continue the project at their schools, and the district has encouraged other schools to consider such projects.

COLLEGIALITY AND IMPROVEMENT NORMS

Little, Judith Warren. *American Educational Research Journal,* Volume 19, Fall 1982, pp. 325-340.

Little describes a one-year study that yields insight into some of the ways in which the social organization of the school as a workplace bears on teachers' involvement in formal or informal occasions of "learning on the job." The study investigated the relationship of such issues to the success or adaptability of a school.

During a 19-week period, interviews were conducted in six urban desegregated schools with 14 members of the district's central administration and with 105 teachers and 14 administrators in the six schools. Observations were conducted in 80 classrooms, six inservice meetings, faculty meetings, lunchrooms, offices, and grounds of the six schools. From these observations and interviews, four classes of interactions were deemed crucial: (1) discussion of classroom practice, (2) mutual observation and critique, (3) shared effort to design and prepare curriculum, and (4) shared participation in the business of instructional improvement. These four types of practices distinguish the more successful and adaptable schools from the less successful and adaptable schools. Little refers to these as the "critical practices of adaptability." Little found that, in successful schools, collegial experimentation is a way of life that pervaded the schools, and continuous professional development was made relevant to the occupation and career of teaching. She also found that schools' rights to innovate and participate were more widely distributed; teachers were less reliant on formal position and were variable by situation. Reciprocal support between administrators and teachers and reciprocal support among teachers proved to be consistent factors in these schools.

Through expectations and shared work (collegiality norm) and expectations for analysis and evaluation (improvement norm), Little found that professional development and organization was greatly affected by the prevailing climate of the school as workplace. The author concludes that staff development is consequential to the degree that it stimulates or strengthens critical practices while building knowledge and skill in instruction. Shared work experimentation was a key element in the study, and the six schools displayed considerable variation in the range of critical practices.

ZOOM, WHOOSH, RAT-A-TAT-TAT, BANG, SHRIEK, BOOM

Luty, Carl. *Today's Education, Volume* 71, April-May 1983, pp. 36-39.

Luty reports on an informal survey conducted by the editors of *Today's Education* on noise and its effects on classroom teaching and learning. The informal survey consisted of questionnaires to 30 primary and secondary teachers across the nation. The author notes that noise is doubling in volume roughly every 15 years and that more than 300,000 children in the United States suffer some form of hearing anomaly.

Findings of the survey showed that two-thirds of the respondents described the effect of noise on their teaching as either "significant" or "somewhat important." This included noise from within or from outside the classroom. One-half described noise as "among the most serious" problems that affect learning. More than two-thirds reported that the most disruptive noise came from within the school, while a few teachers complained of their school's location near flight patterns or heavy industry. However, most of the teachers pointed to architectural design, inadequate soundproofing, and classroom arrangement as the most serious causes of disruptive noise. Slightly more than half of the respondents claimed that chronic exposure to noise had ruined their students' ability to appreciate quiet activities such as a nature walk, a poetry reading, or soft music. All teachers surveyed agreed that noise had an elevating effect on their own stress levels. The respondents also claimed that they lost between 10 and 20 percent of their effective teaching time to noise. Luty points out that although the survey was limited and that the sample of teachers was small, the results suggest that noise is a serious enemy of the educative process.

A very interesting finding was that one-half of the teachers who devised a noisy environment found that their students performed in noisy conditions. Silence annoyed the students. However, a few teachers reported that their students performed better when quietness was present. In summary, Luty concludes that noise is a serious pollutant but that many students want their familiar environment, the atmosphere they grew up with—an atmosphere that is loud, noisy, and without quiet.

FORGE SOLID ALLIANCES WITH THESE THREE GROUPS

McLaughlin, Mike. *The Executive Educator,* Volume 9, November 1987, pp. 21, 30.

McLaughlin describes a school-community cooperative effort in the Cotati-Rohnert Park, California, Unified School District. The school district has established formal alliances with three important group—parents, college and university officials, and community and business leaders. The joint effort has provided the school district with a pool of volunteer help, a political base of support, a communications network within the community, and other benefits. One of the first steps taken was to organize the presidents of 12 school parent/teacher organizations into a Leaders Council. The Leaders Council has created an efficient communications network between the central office and the parents. Improving communications has also enabled the school system to respond more effectively to community concerns and to organize parents.

Nearby university staff members have helped organize staff development programs for school employees and have helped redesign the curriculum to give students a better introduction to world history, geography, economics, and government studies. Another result of the close working relationship is College Day, when college-bound students tour local universities and sit in on lectures. A corollary program brings university professors to classrooms to discuss their fields of expertise with students and to explain the wide range of professional opportunities. The annual Leadership Institute, a two-day education conference in which teachers, university professors, and consultants from across the U.S. speak to local school personnel, brought in 300 participants from 42 area school systems during the past year.

The local junior college has also provided vocational classes for selected eleventh and twelfth graders.

An alternative used by the district has been to establish a "key leaders" association, which has served as a forum to convey the school systems' needs and to allow community leaders to make their concerns known. Volunteer work by students has been instituted along with Rohnert Park's Destination Council, which schedules school-related activities, such as regional speech contests. The author points out that much hard work is necessary in establishing alliances with various community groups, but the first step must be taken by the local school district to actively involve key community groups, which in turn will assist in strengthening the total program.

ESTABLISHING A LOCAL EDUCATION FOUNDATION

Nesbit, W. Ben. *NASSP Bulletin*, Volume LXXI, February 1987, pp. 85-89.

Nesbit reports on a survey of 32 local education foundations in 13 states, conducted in 1985. The average amount of money raised was $108,746 per year. The number of students benefiting from each of the foundations varied from fewer than 1,000 to more than 50,000. His survey showed that almost half the foundations were established to raise funds. However, other foundations were started to acquire special materials or equipment, to involve communities in the schools, to supplement budgets, to retain and show appreciation for teachers or to improve teacher morale, to provide scholarships, to maintain quality, or to assist less affluent areas.

Respondents reported that the three greatest benefits, other than financial, were improved attitudes about the schools, improved support in the community, and improved communication between school and community. The survey respondents also ranked the three most important characteristics of education foundation board members as time to work with the foundation, credibility in the community, and loyalty to schools. Some identified problems included poor administration, inability to reach goal consensus, resistance to the idea of private support of public schools, lack of volunteers, lack of community support, and need for staff. Respondents stated that the education foundation should be separate from but associated with the local school district. The survey revealed that most foundations follow this chronology of events: establishing a steering committee, selecting the appropriate legal format, and appointing a board of directors. The board of directors governs the disbursement of funds, which may be given directly to teachers, groups of students or parents, departments, schools, or the school board.

Nesbit concludes that interest in education foundations will increase in the years ahead. Involvement by the community and the grassroots approach to helping education were noted as significant factors in the survey. The educational climate of both schools and community has been affected in a positive manner by this increase in local education foundations.

A COMMON-SENSE APPROACH TO BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS

Petty, Ray. *Principal,* Volume 67, September 1987, pp. 29-31.

The author describes the K-12 Special Education Learning Center (SELC) in the Hartford public schools. The SELC was established in 1978 to help deal with students who showed severe behavioral disorders. SELC has successfully been in operation for nine years and has grown from a staff of three with five students to a staff of 50 with 180 students. The basis for the SELC program is some common-sense practices. Petty recommends these practices for all administrators.

First, the top priority is behavior. Discipline is everyone's responsibilty in an educational setting, not just the principal's. Students must understand that they are to be responsive to all of the adults in the school setting—principal, teachers, aides, and food service and maintenance employees.

Next, students' positive behaviors should be noted, not just their negative ones. It is especially important to point out positive behaviors in students who have had a history of behavior problems.

Moreover, Petty maintains that touching students, within common-sense bounds, is beneficial. Touching helps students sense that their teachers are human and are caring people.

Additionally, the author operates on the premise that students should be permitted to learn through their mistakes by means of punishment rather than be "branded" throughout their school career. He supports the idea that students who have been punished should be allowed to start over each day with a "clean slate" rather than have negative behavior expected of them.

LISTENING TO TEACHERS: THE MISSING LINK IN REFORM

Wangberg, Elaine G. *The Clearing House*, Volume 61, October 1987, pp. 76-80.

Wangberg reports on a study concerning teacher stress. The Teacher Stress Scale was administered to 377 teachers in a large urban school system and a sample of 216 teachers from across the nation, using Likert scale items. Six factors related to teacher job dissatisfaction were identified on the Teacher Stress Scale. These factors included (1) *burnout*—negative feelings about work, negative feelings about own competence, lack of administrative support, lack of decision-making input, and less time for positive interactions with students; (2) *control*—little control over what to teach and how to teach; (3) *work rewards*—lack of public and parental support, poor benefits and salary, lack of recognition, low job mobility, and low job status; (4) *work overload*—not enough time for students, paperwork requirements, etc.; (5) *physical environment*—unpleasant work conditions, run-down buildings, noise, inadequate materials, violence, and extreme temperatures; and (6) *classroom management*—many discipline problems, loss of confidence in self and students.

The recommendations for improvement as recommended by the teachers included reducing burnout, increasing involvement, offering work rewards, curtailing work overloads, improving the physical environment, and improving classroom management. Teacher professionalism becomes a key issue in searching for ways to improve teaching. The respondents felt that society as a whole and local school communities need to be aware of teacher concerns.

Wangberg points out that there is no simple answer to the present educational crisis, but the responses to the stress scale emphasize the importance of school and community commitment followed by policies and programs that encourage greater respect and support for local teachers. Although some of the improvements would involve increased costs, a good number of the improvements are relatively inexpensive in nature. The educational climate in which teachers work is greatly affected by the educational climate of the specific community. Wangberg emphasizes the importance of community support in lowering teacher stress and in improving the overall climate for learning.

Suggested Readings

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EPILOGUE

EPILOGUE

The authors are aware of the various concerns surrounding the identification and dissemination of trend lists or studies. They understand that any stated list is dependent upon the selection of process and literature for study as well as upon the interests and concerns of the investigators. The trends and issues reported in this publication represent the results of systematic analysis of over 1,000 articles from selected journals published between 1982 and 1987.

Similar studies have been conducted periodically in an effort to document changes in educational practices since 1964. Findings from the previous studies and information about the processes involved in gaining data for these studies are recorded in the following publications.

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